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ABSTRACT

This collection of articles gathers reprinted materials on teacher attraction and retention for small and rural school districts. The material is organized in two sections: (1) Attracting and Retaining Quality Teachers and (2) Challenging and Enriching Current Staff. Reprints from a number of publications present strategies for addressing the teacher shortage, suggestions for in-service training, and recommendations for successful recruitment and retention of teachers, including minorities. Articles in section 1 examine the use of incentives, career and work rewards, merit pay, partnerships with local universities, and other motivating devices to help teachers' self-image and recognize the professional job teachers do. Support programs for teachers in their first years of teaching keep instructional quality high and faculty turnover low. Articles included in the second section examine the place of teacher involvement in school improvement efforts, principals' influence on staff development, peer coaching, Tennessee's Career Ladder Program, and a North Carolina program providing university retreats for teachers. A list of 17 additional references is included. (DHP)

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SMALL SCHOOLS NETWORK
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Number 5

SPRING 1988

• ATTRACTING, RETAINING, and DEVELOPING QUALITY TEACHERS in SMALL SCHOOLS •

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* **Information Exchange Packet Number 5** is organized in two sections:

Section I: Attracting and Retaining Quality Teachers

Section II: Challenging and Enriching Current Staff

* **In addition to the Table of Contents** pages that follow these guidelines, each of the two sections of the packet also begins with a contents page. Sections I and II contents pages include routing lists for convenient distribution.

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"Standards' Board Makes Significant Gains," The School Administrator, February 1988. (Reprint)

"Preservice Training for Rural Teachers: A Survey," The Rural Educator, Vol. 8, No. 3, Spring 1987. (Reprint)

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"Merit Pay -- A Formula to Make It Work in Education," NASSP Bulletin, September 1987. (Reprint)

B. ADDITIONAL REFERENCES AND RESOURCES

Includes a listing of other pertinent articles and/or reports as well as information on ordering several reports and booklets.

II. Developing Quality Teachers: Challenging and Enriching Current Staff

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"Strategic Planning Issues That Bear on the Success of School Improvement Efforts," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 22, No. 3, Summer 1986. Available from The Regional Laboratory, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810, $2.00 ea. (Reprint)

"Ideas That Work," Staff Development in Small and Rural School Districts, American Association of School Administrators, 1983. (Reprint)

"Everyday Acts: How Principals Influence Development of Their Staffs," Educational Leadership, February 1987. (Reprint)

"Lessons from Tennessee's Career Ladder Program," Educational Leadership, April 1987. (Reprint)

"To the Heart of the Mind: Renewal for North Carolina Teachers," Educational Leadership, November 1987. (Reprint)

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MINI-BIBLIOGRAPHIES, COMPUCOPIES, AND COST AND NO-COST ITEMS

Listing of items included at the beginning of Information Exchange Packet Number 5.

* Available from The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810:

Continuing to Learn: A Guidebook for Teacher Development, $10.00 (bulk rates available);

The Regional Lab Reports, Teacher Development Issue, November 1987.

* Available at various prices from ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1787 Agate Street, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403:

Instructional Leadership and School Improvement Series, Papers and Bibliographies at various prices, 1987;

Effective Staff Development for Teachers: A Research-Based Model, $4.75 per copy, based on 1982 study;

The Mentor Teacher Casebook, $8.00 per copy, November 1987;

THE BEST OF ERIC: Improving the Quality of Teaching, Vol. 90, No Cost, May 1987.

* Available from Oregon School Study Council, 1787 Agate Street, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403:

Instructional Leadership from OSSC, Papers and Profiles at various prices, Publication dates from 1982 through 1986.

A List of Topics For a **Value Search**, ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, $7.50 Per Topic, 1787 Agate Street, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403.

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ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

* Not included in Information Exchange Packet Number 5, but available from ERIC/CRESS, Box 3 A P, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM 88003:

"Facilitating Certification and Professional Development For Small Schools," No Cost, March 1985;

"Finding and Keeping Teachers: Strategies for Small Schools," No Cost, September 1984;

"Inservice Training in Rural Schools," No Cost, December 1987;

"Planning Staff Development Programs For Rural Teachers," No Cost, March 1985.

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Toward a Comprehensive Strategy for Addressing The Teacher Shortage

by Willis D. Hawley

A severe shortage of qualified teachers is upon us, says Mr. Hawley. He examines the likely consequences of different policies for affecting the supply of and the demand for teachers and suggests some lessons for policy makers.

BY MOST ACCOUNTS, the United States is about to experience a severe shortage of qualified teachers. In some fields and in some regions, that shortage is already here. Everyone knows that math and science teachers are in short supply, but that is only part of the problem. School systems in many urban areas have found it difficult to recruit teachers in a number of fields.

It is important to recognize that, throughout U.S. history, we have had recurrent shortages of qualified teachers. And, if we focus on the academic ability of those who are preparing to teach, we have had a shortage of candidates with average or above-average ability for decades – often most severe in just those fields in which there is already unmet demand. The demand for qualified math teachers, for example, has exceeded the supply for at least 40 years. But it is likely that the crisis we are about to confront will be of historic proportions.

Both the number and the proportion of college students preparing to teach have declined precipitously in recent years, while a disproportionate number of teachers are leaving the profession. At the same time, what has been called a "baby boomlet" is reaching school age and driving up enrollments.

Among the most important reasons why the proportion of college graduates preparing for careers in teaching seems to be at an all-time low are:

- reductions in the earning power of teachers relative to that of individuals in other occupations and professions;
- the opening of career opportunities in other fields for minorities and women (though this seems to be having a greater impact on the pool of minority candidates than on women candidates);
- increased requirements for certification;
- the perception among college students that both teacher education and teaching are low-status enterprises; and
- a decline in the quality of working environments that teachers confront.

Other factors are at work as well. For instance, a move toward reducing class sizes in kindergarten and the primary grades will certainly exacerbate the problem of staffing those classrooms, and increases in the requirements for high school graduation and admission to college are likely to place an even greater strain on such already strapped fields as mathematics and foreign languages.

Although it is possible to define the general characteristics of the teacher shortage, reasonably precise estimates of the supply of and demand for teachers are problematic, and we really do not know enough about the magnitude and character of the shortage. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) estimated that between 1989 and 1993 we will need about one million new teachers.[1] Many people view these figures as overstated and alarmist, but in 1983 some 230,000 teachers were hired – a number significantly larger than the 164,000 that the NCES had estimated would be needed in that year.[2]

In part, the magnitude and character of the shortage are so hard to pin down because frequent policy changes keep the situation constantly in flux. Indeed, teachers' salaries have risen disproportionately within the last two years, and enrollments in teacher education programs also appear to be increasing. In addition, state policies vary enormously, as do labor market conditions. Thus the characteristics of the teacher shortage vary from state to state and from school system to school system. More-

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WILLIS D. HAWLEY (George Peabody College for Teachers of Vanderbilt University Chapter) is dean of the George Peabody College and professor of education and political science, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.

Historically, we have dealt with teacher shortages by reducing or doing away with requirements for entry into the profession.

over, the labor market for teachers is unique: intrinsic rewards are high, extrinsic rewards are relatively low, and the unusual daily schedule and yearly calendar allow some parents to teach full-time and still be home with their children.

A major source of difficulty in predicting any future shortage of teachers is that we do not really know what qualities we want in the future labor force. For example, how smart does a teacher have to be to be effective? Indeed, since we want the best from those to whom we entrust our children, it is difficult to talk openly about setting reasonable goals for the qualities we want in a teacher.

Historically, we have dealt with teacher shortages most efficiently by reducing or eliminating requirements for entry into the profession. Presumably, the current concern for the quality of the teaching force, coupled with the traditional opposition of higher education and teacher organizations, will discourage us from doing so again. To be sure, there are a number of "alternative teacher preparation" schemes being planned or implemented. But it seems unlikely that such proposals will have much effect on the overall problem because they do nothing to increase the inherent attractiveness of teaching.

Another strategy for dealing with teacher shortages that we have tried before is an across-the-board increase in teacher salaries. Although higher pay for teachers is essential to any effort to reduce the number of hard-to-fill teaching positions, this approach is severely constrained by limits on the public purse. Two recent studies estimate that teacher salaries would have to be increased by about 40% in order to make teaching competitive on strictly economic dimensions with other occupations and professions that attract reasonably bright college graduates.[3] *Such large increases are not going to happen.*

IF NEITHER higher salaries nor lower standards are viable ways to solve the problem of a shortage of teachers, we must explore other strategies. There are many proposals on the policy agendas of states and school districts, but, by themselves, they are not a promising lot. Simply filling classrooms is not enough. What we need are politically feasible, comprehensive constellations of policies and practices that can fundamentally alter both the supply of and the demand for teachers in particular teacher labor markets. In order to formulate such constellations we must judge their potential effectiveness on a variety of criteria, including:

- the quality of teachers available to teach specified curricula;
- the quality of teachers, measured by academic capabilities;
- the effectiveness of teachers, measured by their classroom performance in producing student learning;
- the economic cost; and
- the retention and reentry of effective teachers.

Some of these considerations will cut

Illustration by Gary Kelley

in different directions as they are applied in particular ways. For example, if we significantly increase the entry costs for prospective teachers (e.g., by requiring extended college programs) in an effort to increase teacher competence and status, the added costs to teacher candidates will have to be subsidized or the number and quality of candidates are likely to go down. Furthermore, even if entry costs of high-quality candidates are subsidized, students' willingness to enter the profession would depend on the attractiveness of the rewards offered. But the money available to provide such rewards would be reduced by the costs of the new induction process itself.

Thus increasing the costs of entering the profession will probably require that the structure of the profession change so that some teachers receive substantially more status and economic rewards than others *and* that the eligibility to receive those rewards be set at entry. All of this would mean that the way schools are organized would have to be changed significantly. If this sounds familiar, it should. This is the way the armed forces have dealt with their professional staffing problems. It seems worth noting that more recruits become teachers each year than join the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps combined.

Most efforts to deal with the general teacher shortage focus on bringing novices into teaching – particularly young people fresh from college. Surely this pool of candidates needs to be enlarged and strengthened. But we could reduce the need for novice teachers if we reduced the rate of attrition among experienced teachers (preferably among those who are most competent). And we could help alleviate shortages if we recruited back into teaching those talented people who have left the profession. Policies designed to address the teacher shortage need to tap all three of these pools of talent.

Given the differences among the states in the ways teaching is funded and teachers are certified, dozens of different policies could affect the supply of and the demand for teachers. Let me turn to an examination of the likely consequences of a number of those options that are now receiving the most attention from policy makers. Higher entry requirements are not usually thought of as ways to attract better teachers, but I will consider them here because they also affect the quantity of new recruits. Most policy makers concerned with the teacher shortage have given little attention to improved working conditions and ways of increasing intrinsic rewards, but I will consider them, too, because these strategies are important elements of the comprehensive solution we seek.

It seems worth noting that more recruits become teachers each year then join the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps combined.

THE LIKELY consequences of each of several policies that are being advanced as at least partial solutions to the teacher shortage are listed in Table 1. The effects are judged against the five criteria noted above. Let me acknowledge that the evidence on which some of my estimates are based is skimpy at best. Other analysts will no doubt come to somewhat different conclusions about specific policies. The usefulness of this analysis seems to hinge on 1) whether the analytic framework is helpful when applied to particular settings and 2) whether one agrees with the general conclusion that we need to seek more comprehensive solutions to the problem of teacher shortages than we have relied on in the past.

Table 1 briefly describes 23 types of policies and practices that relate to the ability of school systems to attract and retain well-qualified teachers. The estimated effects of such policies on each of five goals are summarized by using a simple and admittedly imprecise code. If the policy is likely to result in a modest or significant increase in the specified outcome, this is shown by one or two plus signs (+) respectively. Negligible or uncertain outcomes are shown as zero; modestly or significantly negative impacts are shown by one or two minus signs (-). The magnitude of economic costs is shown by minus signs because high cost will affect the overall feasibility of any constellation of policies.

Let me acknowledge that wading through an analysis of 23 types of policies on the effects of five different outcomes may seem a bit wearisome. You may find it useful to skip the table and read on in the text. If anything there catches your eye, you can return to the analysis of that particular option.

Although the estimates in Table 1 of the consequences of different policies designed to address the shortage of teachers are speculative, several generalizations seem to follow from the analysis. In drawing these conclusions, I make two assumptions. First, the financial resources needed to recruit and retain teachers will be limited and should be used in ways that both end the shortage and promote teacher effectiveness. Second, policies that deal with the teacher shortage but do not focus on the need to reduce the rate of attrition of effective teachers and do not encourage reentry of those who have left the profession will increase the costs of improving the size and quality of the pool of teacher candidates. This is true because new teachers are usually less effective than those with three to five years' experience and because many of the policies that help retain teachers also enhance their effectiveness.

Given these assumptions, I draw several lessons from my assessment of alternative strategies for affecting the supply of and the demand for teachers.

- Regulatory policies, such as tests, a priori admissions requirements, and other screening devices, will neither reduce the teacher shortage nor bring better-qualified people into teaching, because they do not alter significantly the rewards for teaching. Moreover, they have a significant negative impact on the number of minority teachers – a problem that is much in need of attention.

- Policies that restructure the workplace by granting teachers more collective responsibility, maximizing the time teachers teach, fostering collegiality, and providing increased information about student performance have relatively low cost, will have a positive effect on all three pools of teacher recruits, and promise to improve teacher effectiveness.

- Policies that focus resources on the preparation period preceding a teaching career – such as loans and scholarship programs and extended teacher education programs – are not likely to address the teacher shortage unless they are handsomely subsidized. Extended programs of teacher preparation, for example, could double the costs to the individual of becoming a teacher and, even if reasonably subsidized, could require at least a third of all the money available to bring about education reforms.

- Policies that make it easy and rewarding for able former teachers to reenter teaching will be an important part of any long-term solution to the problem of maintaining a well-qualified teaching corps. The so-called "reserve pool" of former teachers is much, much larger than the number of college students now preparing to be teachers.

It seems clear enough that we will need a constellation of policies to address the problem of teacher shortages. Moreover, because economic conditions and state and local policies vary, policies that are standardized across different labor markets will inevitably be less efficient and less effective. Despite the need for policies that are responsive to differing circumstances, some general vision of a dominant career pattern for teachers should emerge from the current deliberations about how to increase the number of effective teachers in U.S. schools.

LET ME SUGGEST one such pattern that seems to address the shortage issue in ways that will strengthen the profession in general. In this pattern, talented people would be encouraged to enter teaching after performing well in college. Then, either as undergraduates or as first-year graduate students, they would take a limited number of what might be called "pre-professional" courses. In some cases, these basic pre-professional courses could be taken in intensive summer programs.

The first step in a teacher's career would be a supervised internship in a school that served — as some hospitals do for the medical profession — as a specially staffed training site. Students would be paid on a half-time basis in exchange for instructional services that would become increasingly independent. Methods courses in various subjects and courses in classroom management would be team-taught by professors and master teachers selected for their ability to work with prospective teachers, for their knowledge of relevant research, and for their teaching skills.

To enter the internship — opportunities for which would be limited by an estimate of the demand for new teachers — candidates would have to demonstrate college-level communication and computation skills, as well as thorough knowledge of the subjects they plan to teach, some knowledge of child development, and some knowledge of other "basics" of education. Admission would be competitive. After the internship and before provisional certification, interns would have to demonstrate actual teaching competence.

The internship seems an essential piece in the puzzle of how to maintain both the quality and the quantity of new teachers. The first year of teaching, as careers are now organized, is a major source of disillusionment and attrition, and it is also hard on the children being taught. Eliminating practice teaching (which is often ineffective and even counterproductive) in favor of a true internship would free learning time in college and reduce the need for post-baccalaureate training prior to the internship.

Following the successful completion of an internship, teachers would be provisionally certified and carefully evaluated in ways designed to foster their professional development. After two or three years of teaching, during which time "provisional teachers" could earn points that could be converted into educational benefits (as is the case with members of the armed forces), provisional teachers who elected to compete for career teacher status would be screened and certified. Those who chose to continue teaching could receive a forgivable loan, which might vary in amount with market conditions, that they could combine with earned education credits, so that they could complete a master's degree by attending a university full-time for a semester and a summer. The transition from provisional to career status would act as an additional screening for prospective members of the profession.

The internship seems an essential piece in the puzzle of how to maintain both the quality and the quantity of new teachers.

During the period of provisional status, salaries would be modest. This would allow the money that society invests in teachers to be focused on those who are judged most competent and who intend to make teaching a career.* Given the historically high turnover in the early years of teaching, this approach seems most cost-effective. Furthermore, it seems reasonable to believe that teachers will learn more from graduate work in education after they have taught than before (no teacher I have

"Myself, I deal in dangerous things . . . drugs, guns, and a little knowledge."

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*The career development plan outlined here is the product of my discussions with David Florio.

talked to about this believes otherwise). An assumption underlying this proposal is that relatively low salaries in one's early twenties would be less a concern to potential career teachers than the prospect of low salaries throughout a professional career.

After completing a master's degree, career teachers would receive a substantial increase in pay and would enter some form of career ladder that would tie evaluation to opportunities for staff development and career development, as well as to salary increases.

Under this plan, policies designed to give teachers greater professional responsibility or to improve teachers' working conditions would be high priorities in state and local governments. Indeed, recruiting a greater number of talented people to the profession and enhancing their competence will have little impact if not accompanied by efforts to improve working conditions and to give teachers greater professional responsibility.

This view of a teaching career would not deny entry to those who wish to enter the profession but do not wish to make teaching a long-term career. Such

TABLE 1.
Likely Effects on the Teaching Force of Selected Policies and Practices*

Policies and Practices	Teacher Supply	Academic Quality	Teacher Effectiveness	Added Costs	Retention and Reentry
1. *Higher standards for admission to and graduation from teacher preparation programs.* Such policies typically raise grade-point average minimums, raise minimum aptitude test (ACT, SAT) scores, and require a greater number of or specific courses (e.g., a major in a discipline other than education).	– –	+[4]	0	0	0
2. *Entry tests of teacher knowledge.* Such tests reflect a lack of confidence in the screening done by universities and range from basic skills tests to tests of subject-matter expertise or tests of so-called "professional knowledge."	– –	+[4]	0	0	0
3. *Extended programs of teacher preparation.* These programs require, in various formats, five or more years of college-based education before one is allowed to teach. For our purposes, internship programs are not considered fifth-year programs. Internship programs are increasingly proposed as add-ons to five-year programs by advocates of extended programs.	– –	0	0	– –[5]	+
4. *Internship programs.* These programs involve a full year, usually with partial pay, of supervised preservice training in a special school. Practice teaching is consolidated with the first year of induction. Such programs would be administered jointly by college and professional educators and would attend to the development of "craft knowledge."	–	+	+ +[6]	–	+
5. *Alternative certification programs.* Such programs by-pass teacher education programs and seek to minimize entry requirements for teachers. They see persons who enter teaching in this way as learning on the job in their own classrooms with certain supports.	+	0	–	0	–
6. *Loan-forgiveness programs.* These programs award grants and no-interest loans, often limited to certain fields, that need not be repaid if recipients teach for a specified length of time.	0[7]	0	0	–	+
7. *Industry loan programs.* Companies lend personnel full- or part-time to teach certain topics (e.g., mathematics and science).	0	+	0	0	–
8. *Increased beginning salaries.* Significant increases in entry-level salaries are provided, usually with corresponding increases for all teachers.	+[8]	+	+	– –	+
9. *Increased salaries for experienced teachers.* This approach, which is not explicitly on the policy agenda, would keep beginning salaries relatively low and would focus salary increases on persons who have taught three to five years and proven their competence.	+[9]	+	+	– –	+ +
10. *Incentive pay for special roles.* Bonuses and differentiated pay scales are targeted on roles for which it is difficult to find qualified applicants (e.g., math teachers).	+[10]	+	+	–	+
11. *Merit pay.* Teachers are rewarded through salary increases that are tied to performance evaluations of various kinds. Sometimes these increases take the form of bonuses that must be earned again each year.	+[11]	+	+	–	+
12. *Career ladder plans.* As with merit pay, performance evaluations are used as a basis for differential salaries, but career ladders add the idea of stages of eligibility for different award levels and differentiated roles. There is no necessary link between merit pay and career ladders. Some career ladder plans embody staff development components.	+[12]	+	+	–	+

individuals would simply opt out of teaching between provisional and full certification. But this view of teaching does reject three widely discussed proposals: 1) that large numbers of teachers will be temporary "volunteers," much like Peace Corps workers; 2) that "loaners" from industry will make up a significant portion of the teaching force; and 3) that the bulk of teachers will not be expected to move into the highest ranks of the profession.

To imagine that the profession should absorb many short-term teachers who typically have little formal preparation other than subject-matter courses underestimates the complexity of teaching. The idea that smart short-term teachers who know their subjects can be effective seems to derive from the college or elite private school model of instruction. Apt as that model may be for those settings (a problematic assumption in any case), it seems inappropriate to elementary schools and to secondary schools with large numbers of low-achievers. The so-called two-tiered plan for the teaching profession also fails to recognize the importance of staff stability (and the avoidance of status

TABLE 1. (Continued)

Likely Effects on the Teaching Force of Selected Policies and Practices

Policies and Practices	Teacher Supply	Academic Quality	Teacher Effectiveness	Added Costs	Retention and Reentry
13. *Honors and recognition.* This no-cost policy seeks to give peer and public recognition for superior performance.	0	0	0	0	+
14. *Control over key decisions.* This policy involves teachers at the school and/or departmental level in making decisions regarding curriculum, grading policies, disciplinary practices, and other important choices that affect what happens in schools and classrooms.	+[13]	+	+ +	0	+ +
15. *Professional autonomy.* Teachers are allowed considerable freedom as individuals to make choices about the ways they organize their classrooms, the emphases they give to subjects, the teaching methods they use, etc.	0	+	-	0	+
16. *Orderly teaching environments.* Not usually seen as a recruitment device, this policy seeks to insure that teachers can do their job with minimal disruption. It usually requires significant teacher involvement and strong support from school and district administrators.	+	+	+	0[14]	+
17. *Facilitate collegial interaction.* To encourage teachers to interact professionally with peers, instruction is organized to promote teaming, teachers are provided with common planning time, peer observation is facilitated, and administrators involve teachers in significant decisions.	+	+	+	-	+
18. *Reduce noninstructional activities.* Teachers are provided with staff, volunteers, and technological support to carry out such tasks as monitoring halls, buses, and lunchrooms; collecting money; and locating instructional resources. In addition, disruptions of teaching by other school activities are minimized.	0	+	+	-	+
19. *Provide feedback on student performance.* Most teachers want to teach for altruistic reasons. This policy seeks to provide information about how children are being helped and how they can be helped more. Such feedback contemplates no negative sanctions for teachers if students are not performing well.	0	0	+ +[15]	-	+ +
20. *Opportunity for professional development.* This policy offers such incentives as opportunities to participate in workshops, conduct research, observe exemplary colleagues, make public presentations, and undertake leadership roles.	0	+	+	-	+
21. *Policies that facilitate interstate and interdistrict career moves.* These would include the transferability of tenure, pensions, and experience but would not involve entitlements.	+	+	+	0	+ +
22. *Policies that facilitate reentry.* These generally would facilitate lateral entry by allowing teachers to retain the benefits and status they had when they left teaching, assuming they did so voluntarily. Reentry, however, should require the same high standards demanded of new teachers.	+ +	+	+	0	N/A
23. *Retrain teachers in new fields.* Such programs typically provide intensive on-the-job retraining or help teachers return to college to develop or renew expertise in a subject they are not currently certified to teach. For example, history teachers may be retrained to teach biology.	0	0	0	+ +	+

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*Superscript numbers refer to footnotes at the end of this article.

schisms) for establishing curricular coherence, fostering collegiality, and achieving the shared purpose that characterizes effective schools. Furthermore, the idea that we will have two or three classes of teachers with very different preparation and talents seems to imply ways of organizing instruction that have yet to be invented.

As we consider strategies for making teaching a more attractive profession, we need to recognize that one of the benefits of teaching for many has been that it is a career that accommodates child rearing better than most. Education reforms, such as year-round schools and extended days, will surely reduce the attractiveness of this feature of a teaching career. On the other hand, if schools were to become sites of high-quality day-care centers (where various "laboratory" courses in early childhood education might be taught) or if more schools allowed part-time employment with full-time status and opportunities for advancement, then teaching might become more attractive to men and women who want a career *and* the chance to spend more time with their children.

I would add one final note. Although it is by no means certain that the public will provide sufficient funds for significant increases in teacher salaries, it is almost certainly the case that greater compensation will not come without some form of intensive evaluation that will tie these increases, at least in part, to perceived performance. In these evaluation systems lies the key to the attractiveness of the profession – and a dilemma for teacher organizations.

The more successful we are in recruiting and retaining those who have career options other than teaching, the more likely it is that such individuals will demand opportunities to exercise professional judgment. At the same time, teachers want to be protected from arbitrary actions on the part of supervisors or evaluators and may insist on detailed and explicit criteria for evaluation. However, as a consequence of such demands, teaching could become more routine and mechanical. If that should happen, not only will talented people leave the profession or refuse to enter it in the first place, but teaching will not be responsive to the enormous variety of needs and talents that students bring with them to school. One way around this problem is for teachers and policy makers to trust in peer review and discretionary evaluation. This process includes a distinct possibility of error, but the alternative is bureaucratization and banality.

"Your son misunderstood; two of our teachers have aides!"

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1. Valena White Plisko and Joyce Stern, eds., *The Condition of Education* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1985), p. 144.

2. Data on the actual number of teachers hired are taken from the unpublished findings of a survey of a national sample of school districts, conducted by the NCES and reported in *The Condition of Education*, 1985 ed., p. 150. One reason for the disparity, of course, is interdistrict transfers.

3. Paul E. Peterson, "Economic and Political Trends Affecting Education," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities, Denver, February 1985; and Charles F. Manski, *Academic Ability, Earnings, and the Decision to Become a Teacher: Evidence from the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1982* (Cambridge, Mass.: National Bureau of Economic Research, Working Paper No. 1539, January 1985). The figures cited are very close to those posited by the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy in its May 1986 report.

4. These policies will increase the average academic ability of teacher candidates by eliminating those who score low on tests; they will not increase the number of candidates with high academic ability. The policies are having a particularly negative impact on the supply of black and Hispanic teacher candidates. See Ruth B. Ekstrom and Margaret E. Goertz, "The Teacher Supply Pipeline: The View from Four States," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, March 1985.

5. If all teacher candidates were required to attend college for five years prior to being authorized to teach *and* the quality of the pool were to be *maintained*, the cost could be as high as $6 billion. See Willis D. Hawley, "Breaking Away: The Risks and Inadequacy of Extended Teacher Preparation Programs," *American Journal of Education*, in press.

6. The problem of teacher induction is a serious one. Current processes reduce teacher learning and increase attrition. See Carolyn Evertson, Willis D. Hawley, and Marilyn Zlotnik, "Making a Difference Through Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, May/June 1985, pp. 2-12.

7. Early returns on the consequences of loan programs are mixed, but their positive effects appear to be small. See Irene Spero, "The Use of Student Financial Aid to Attract Prospective Teachers: A Survey of State Efforts," testimony before the Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education, Committee on Education and Labor, U.S. House of Representatives, 31 July 1985.

8. The effects of teacher salary increases obviously depend on the size of the increases. In making my estimates, I have assumed a 10% increase above the cost of living. If this seems modest, the aggregate cost in 1985 of such raises would have been close to $5 billion, an amount in excess of raises made in any previous year.

9. To me, the striking point about teacher salary structures is not the difference between salaries of beginning teachers and the entry-level salaries of other college graduates but the difference in average earnings later on. For example, entry-level accountants annually earn about 20%-25% more than first-year teachers (paid on a 10-month basis), but that differential increases to 100% as people in the two professions move through the salary structure.

10. On the potentially positive effects of such policies, see Henry Levin, *Solving the Shortage of Math and Science Teachers* (Stanford, Calif.: Institute for Research on Educational Finance and Governance, Project No. 85-A2, January 1985).

11. Research on merit pay for teachers has focused largely on the stability of the plans themselves rather than on their effects on teachers. See Richard J. Murnane and David K. Cohen, "Merit Pay and the Evaluation Problem: Why Most Merit Pay Plans Fail and a Few Survive," *Harvard Educational Review*, February 1986, pp. 14-30. The reasonably positive assessment here of the *potential* of merit pay and career ladders is based on the arguments developed in Willis D. Hawley, "The Limits and Potential of Performance-Based Pay as a Source of School Improvement," in H. C. Johnson, Jr., ed., *Merit Money and Teachers' Careers* (Lanham, Md.: University Press of America, 1985); and in Harry Hatry and John M. Griener, *Issues and Case Studies in Teacher Incentive Plans* (Washington, D.C.: Urban Institute, 1985), Ch. 11.

12. Early evidence on the effects of career ladders is mixed and sketchy. Much of the analysis has been devoted to the political problems of implementing such plans. Their potential positive impact depends on the design of the plan, especially with respect to its treatment of evaluation and staff development. See Hawley, "The Limits and Potential of Performance-Based Pay. . ."; and Susan J. Rosenholtz and Mark A. Smylie, "Teacher Compensation and Career Ladders," *Elementary School Journal*, vol. 85, 1984, pp. 149-66. Depending on their provisions, career ladder plans may make reentry less attractive if the reentrants must start at the bottom. The same point applies to teachers moving from one jurisdiction to another.

13. Evidence on the possible outcomes of this strategy, as well as strategies 19 and 20, is reviewed in Susan J. Rosenholtz, "Effective Schools: Interpreting the Evidence," *American Journal of Education*, vol. 93, 1985, pp. 352-88.

14. Effective school management and effective classroom management are not costly to maintain but may be difficult to establish. The costs stem from investments in staff development.

15. Positive outcomes assume that feedback on performance will be linked to staff development. The importance of feedback to teachers' sense of efficacy and job commitment is clear. See Willis D. Hawley and Susan J. Rosenholtz, "Good Schools: What Research Says About Improving Student Achievement," *Peabody Journal of Education*, vol. 64, 1984, Chs. 2 and 3. K

VIEWPOINT

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Standards' Board Makes Significant Gains

BY THOMAS W. PAYZANT
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The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, launched by the Carnegie Task Force, is making significant progress toward establishing certification standards.

In October 1987, the new 63-member board held its first meeting in Washington, D.C. James A. Kelley, a former teacher, foundation program officer, school finance expert, and most recently, president of the Center for Creative Studies in Detroit, was elected the board's first president.

The board's bylaws require two-thirds of its membership to be teaching professionals. Three-quarters of these teachers plus one (a majority of the full board's membership) must be regularly engaged in teaching children in elementary or secondary school classrooms.

The other third of the board members are public representatives. These are people from business, higher education, the management and governance of education, and the general public. Once the board begins issuing certificates in sufficient numbers, board-certified teachers will elect the teaching professional members.

As a member of the planning group and now the new board, I am excited about the challenges facing us and the importance of the hard work which now begins. It is not an easy task to assess what teachers know and are able to do as a basis for determining national certification standards.

Clearly, the process used to determine whether candidates meet the new certification standards must be comprehensive and not rely exclusively on traditional paper and pencil tests or completion of specified course work. Demonstration teaching, simulation, presentation of portfolios, interviews, and in-basket exercises are examples of activities that may become part of the assessment process.

Teachers will volunteer to apply for national board certification. It will not change what the states do now. Each state will still be responsible for licensing teachers. Some speculate that one day some states may agree to waive licensing requirements for those teachers who hold national board certification.

Many decisions must be made about what areas to offer first for national certification, what kinds of assessments will be used, and what standards will be established for the various disciplines. At this point, no consensus exists about these issues or even about the best way to proceed. There also is uncertainty about where the estimated $50 million for the next five years' development costs will come.

Professor Lee Shulman has been working with colleagues at Stanford University during the past year with a grant from the Carnegie Corporation to begin developing assessment prototypes. The first formulated are in elementary mathematics and high school American history.

Last summer, preservice teachers, beginning teachers, career teachers, and master teachers tried the new prototypes. The results were encouraging, but much more work remains to be done. At this point, there are no predictions when the first board assessments will be given and certification awarded. I believe at least three to five years will be needed to complete the initial development work.

Is the effort worth it? I believe it is. Teachers are at the center of the educational enterprise.

Public education is still on center stage. The next year will be crucial in determining whether we can sustain the public's interest and bring about a real shift in our national priorities to give the schools the resources and political support they must have to successfully address the issues of teaching and learning in the schools.

The professionalization of teaching is critical to this effort, and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards can help it become a reality.

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PRESERVICE TRAINING FOR RURAL TEACHERS: A SURVEY

Bruce O. Barker
Weldon E. Beckner

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The preparation of teachers to teach in rural schools — or the lack thereof — is a well documented concern faced by many rural school administrators (Gardener and Edington, 1982; Helge, 1982; Massey and Crosby, 1983; Muse and Stonehocker, 1979). The matter is a serious one in light of the fact that over two-thirds of our nation's public school systems are located in areas designated as "rural" (NCES, 1980). These school systems serve more than one-fourth of America's school aged youngsters — those who reside in the open countryside and in communities with fewer than 2500 people (Jess, 1984). In addition, nearly one-third of all public school teachers in the U.S. serve predominantly rural constituencies (Massey and Crosby, 1983).

Although the basics of instruction are similar in urban, suburban, and rural schools, there are important demands of the rural instructional setting which are different. Teachers are generally more isolated from ongoing developments in their field and from other teachers with similar subject matter expertise. The cultural and geographical isolation common to many rural areas is thereby compounded by a sense of professional isolation. Secondary teachers typically teach a wider range of courses than their urban or suburban counterparts and, of necessity, take on added extracurricular assignments — usually without compensation. Elementary teachers are likely to teach two or more grade levels in the same classroom and do so without the assistance of teacher aides. It is not unusual for rural teachers to be called upon to teach a class or subject in which they are not adequately trained and receive little, if any, inservice support. Rural teachers often experience difficulty in locating adequate housing when assigned to a small community, and they may later have difficulty selling property should they move to another location. Small towns and communities limit privacy, making teachers much more visible in the communities in which they live and work. Due to limited resources, rural educators are frequently required to use outdated and/or inadequate supplies in their teaching. Finally, salaries for rural teachers, on the average, are 20-25% lower than those received by urban and suburban teachers (Barker, 1985; Hoyt, 1981; Muse 1979/80; Sher, 1977).

Despite the large number of teachers working in rural schools, those universities that actually have special programs for prospective rural educators are few. Sher stated in 1977 that only a handful of teacher training programs provided special training to prepare teachers for rural areas. Muse (1978), reported that only six universities in the entire country offered courses designed specifically for students who planned rural teaching careers. A review of the literature identifies between 20 and 25 institutions which include some aspect of rural education as part of their teacher training program (Gardener and Edington, 1982; Helge, 1982; Hoyt, 1981; Miller and Sidebottom, 1985). According to Guenther and Weible (1983), however, few of these institutions actually have active rural teacher preparation programs. They reported writing letters to 25 colleges/universities which were noted for having some form of special preparation for rural schools. Their findings were discouraging. Of the administrators which responded to their letters, only one reported an ongoing program. The others, though recognizing the need for a separate preparation, either never had one in actual practice or, for various reasons, discontinued their program.

Questions Needing Answers

This article reports the results of a study to assess the degree to which teacher training programs in our nation's four-year public colleges and universities include rural education as part of their teacher education curriculum. Specific research questions posed for the study were:

1. How many education faculty members are involved in rural education research?
2. How many institutions offer a special course(s) directly related to rural school teaching?
3. What is the perceived need by education deans and chairpersons to implement practices or programs specifically designed for prospective rural teachers?

The Study Design and Findings

A 26-item, self-administered questionnaire was designed, pre-tested, and revised to gather needed data. A mailing list purchased from the National Center for Education Statistics identified a total of 473 public four-year colleges and universities across the United States. Questionnaires were mailed to the attention of college of education deans or department of education chairpersons at each of the 473 institutions. Usable responses were received from 306 institutions (return of 64.7 percent). Questionnaires were mailed in June, 1985. Returns were received from institutions of higher education in 48 different states.

Of the 306 respondents, 72.1 percent were college of education deans at public universities. The remaining 27.9 percent were education chairpersons at four-year public colleges. The mean institutional enrollment size was 7681 students. The median was 5800 students. Over 60 percent of the institutions were in communities of fewer than 35,000 inhabitants and 30 percent were in communities of less than 15,500.

The total number of education faculty members represented among the participating institutions was 13,613. The mean for each school was 46. The number of faculty members who focused their research and/or publication interests on rural education or small schools was low (1.9 percent). Only 93 of the 306 institutions reported faculty members pursuing rural education interests and, in 59 of these schools, the number was limited to one or two. Similarly, over 70 percent of the institutions provided neither special topics nor a course(s) to prepare teachers for a rural setting. The vast majority of the 87 institutions which did include rural education as a part of their curriculum did so only as a special topic or subset of a more general course. Only nine institutions actually reported a course(s) devoted solely to the study of rural or small schools.

Although very few colleges offer courses specifically addressing the topic of rural education and few education faculty members formally conduct research on the topic, many deans and chairpersons seem to recognize a need to focus greater attention on rural education. On the questionnaire, respondents were asked whether they either agreed or disagreed with the statements: (a) "Teaching in a small school is different than teaching in a large school and needs a different preparation;" and (b) "Provisions should be provided by our institution to train teachers for small/rural schools." Almost half (48.8 percent) agreed that teaching was different in small schools compared to large ones and indeed needed a different preparation. In addition, 33.9 percent felt their institutions should make provisions for the training of prospective rural teachers.

Furthermore, despite the criticism from previous researchers that our nation's colleges and universities are largely unresponsive to the preservice training needs of rural teachers, evidence from this study suggests that many of our teacher training institutions do include aspects of their preparation which directly apply to preparing teachers for rural areas. From an investigation of the literature, we compiled a list of ten areas of teacher preparation which, though beneficial to teachers in general, were especially noted as important areas of rural school teacher preparation (Gardener and Edington, 1982; Guenther and Weible, 1983; Horn, 1985; Meier and Edington, 1983; Nachtigal, 1982; Nelson, 1983; Sher, 1977). On a Likert-type scale of "1" to "5" where "1" represented "no emphasis given" and "5" represented "great emphasis given," deans and chairpersons were asked to indicate the degree each of these areas was emphasized at their institution. Responses suggest that most public teacher training colleges and schools place considerable emphasis on practical methods courses as well as on helping prospective teachers properly recognize and refer learning disabled, special education, and exceptional children. Most programs are also geared to help future teachers understand the role of the community in our society

Table 1

Areas of Teacher Education Given Attention at Public Teacher Training Institutions as Perceived by College of Education Deans and Chairpersons, 1985. Reported on a Scale of "1" to "5" Where "1" Represents "No Emphasis Given" and "5" Represents "Great Emphasis Given."

Areas of Preparation	No Emphasis *1*		Little Emphasis 2		Some Emphasis *3*		Considerable Emphasis *4*		Great Emphasis *5*	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Practical Methods Courses	3	1.0	4	1.3	10	3.4	75	25.1	207	69.2
Learning to teach with limited resources	2	0.7	26	8.6	116	38.7	114	38.0	42	14.0
More preparation in guidance and counseling of students	8	2.7	56	19.0	139	47.1	72	24.4	20	6.8
Better preparation in two or more subject matter fields	3	1.0	23	7.8	70	23.8	117	39.8	81	27.6
Exposure to a course in rural sociology	99	33.0	95	31.7	69	23.0	31	10.3	6	2.0
Ability to teach two or more grade levels in the same room	66	22.1	95	31.9	88	29.5	38	12.8	11	3.7
Training to recognize and appropriately refer exceptional children	2	0.7	5	1.7	40	13.4	125	41.8	127	42.4
Training that helps teachers understand the role of the community in American Society	2	0.7	17	5.7	86	28.7	124	41.3	71	23.6
Practicum or student teaching in a rural setting	66	22.0	55	18.3	93	31.0	60	20.0	26	8.7
Course work directly related to rural school teaching	89	29.7	89	29.7	83	27.7	33	11.0	6	2.0

and to be prepared to teach in an age of limited resources and funding. On the other hand, most programs fail to place emphasis on field experiences or practicums in rural settings. Also, little emphasis is given to providing skills in guidance and counseling. The same is true relative to preparing teachers for multigrade instruction in the same classroom, in offering coursework in rural sociology, and in providing special topics or courses on rural education. See Table 1.

Summary and Conclusions

The National Center for Education Statistics predicts that 1.65 million new teachers will be hired over the next eight years (Jacobson, 1985). Due to the continuing urban to rural migration turnaround occurring in our country (Beale, 1975), more and more teachers will be accepting positions in nonmetropolitan areas. For this reason, the preparation of teachers for rural schools must be given increased attention.

It is encouraging, as evidenced by this study, that many teacher training institutions address areas noted as important to rural school teacher preparation. This is usually done as a part of the regular teacher training program. It is also good that many leaders in our public universities and departments of education recognize the need to include rural education as a part of their preservice programs. Good intentions, however, do not necessarily lead to action. It is now time for leaders of our teacher training institutions to adjust or alter existing programs, where necessary, to include aspects of rural and small school preparation as significant components. This is especially true for institutions in largely rural states where funding from state legislatures is supposed to serve *all* people in the state, not just those in metropolitan centers. Specific recommendations for improvement include increased provision for student teaching or practicum experience in rural areas, opportunities for education students to receive training for multigrade teaching, and emphasis for education majors to gain subject matter expertise in several content areas. Another concern that needs to be addressed is the limited research activity being conducted by education faculty members in the area of rural education and small schools. Increased research will raise the awareness of rural education and will likely provide insights on how to make rural schools better. Unless more meaningful attention is given to rural school teachers, students, and administrators, our nation could become a "nation at even greater risk."

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TEACHERS

Finding and Keeping the Best in Small and Rural Districts

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Chapter III

Using Motivation: The Key to Successful Recruitment and Retention

In order to gain a competitive edge in hiring the best and most qualified teachers, rural and small school officials must discover what would motivate a prospective teacher to seek employment in their districts. The following are some strategies based upon best practices described in current professional literature.

During the employment interview, satisfy an applicant's concerns about salary level, the educational facilities, and the availability of equipment, but concentrate on aspects of the job that enhance self-esteem, professional fulfillment, and a sense of belonging to the school and community:

- Small communities can be quite friendly and the potential exists to achieve a respected status.
- Small communities can be scenic, with easygoing lifestyles, little traffic, low pollution, and recreational opportunities related to open or unspoiled terrain.
- The school's programming is flexible enough to allow for work in the candidate's area of interest.
- Small enrollments allow for greater individual attention to students and higher quality education programs.

- Stress that administrators and peers are supportive of a teacher's growth and development, both formally and informally.
- University extension branches, professional libraries, or other means to professional improvement are easily accessible.

Couple an explanation about administrative and clerical responsibilities, which often discourage teachers, with descriptions of various teacher-pleasing opportunities for interacting with students.

Be a sincere interviewer and an active listener, since candidates often respond more to individual styles and skills than to the status or presentation of the interviewer.

Be encouraging to personnel who share lifestyles, interests, and attitudes with the community, since professional satisfaction alone will not hold a teacher.

- The best prospects are candidates who would understand and accept rural culture, have compatible behaviors and share interests with community members, have generic skills required to live and work comfortably, and have knowledge or interest in the community, its history, and political and communication systems.
- Equally valuable are abilities to adapt to different living conditions and develop local and long-distance support systems.
- If weather forces long periods of isolation, self-entertainers would be desirable.

Appeal to a candidate's sense of competition or interest in uniqueness. One district in scenic country advertised its vacancy as "an escape" from undesirable urban areas. An advertisement for a one-room schoolhouse drew many responses when it stated only the most qualified would be chosen and a two-year maximum contract was imposed so that others might enjoy and share their culture and perspectives with the students.

The National Rural Project suggests using the following informal checklist items culled from school interviewer's worksheets:

1. Will the interviewee's personal traits and goals be compatible with those in the area and not make him or her susceptible to criticism and vulnerable to the close vigil of many rural areas?

2. Can the community provide the necessary special and professional development opportunities for this applicant?

3. Will the position provide a realistic challenge to the applicant?

4. Does the applicant have hobbies or other avocational interests which initiate self-entertainment and self-sufficiency?

5. Is the applicant a good listener and genuinely interested in learning about the unique aspects of this particular community?

6. Is the applicant flexible enough to cross interdisciplinary and position lines as required in an area of scarce specialized resources?

7. Is the applicant able to cooperate with people with different viewpoints?

8. Is the applicant flexible enough to assess attributes of the community and produce educational resources using existing systems?

(NRP, 1981)

Chapter IV

Selling the District: Organizing for Profit

Designing, developing, and implementing a recruitment and retention plan can be exciting and educationally profitable if high quality and dedicated staff members result from the effort.

Three basic assumptions underlie a successful plan. First, recruiting is a year-long, ongoing activity. Every public appearance, trip, and school event are opportunities to create a good name for the district and publicize its virtues.

Second, recruiting requires help from everyone in the school and community. There is a role for students, parents, concerned citizens, college students, alumni and staff. Third, quality attracts quality.

A school district must have a visible commitment to excellence in all areas if it expects to draw outstanding applicants.

Strategies used to attract high quality teachers should unfold in a well arranged sequence. Advance planning includes collecting data, devising paperwork support, pulling together a recruitment team, creating public awareness and public relations activities, identifying recruitment targets, and assembling a needs assessment tool to use with applicants.

Collecting And Packaging Data

The more information a school district can present to applicants in an organized and attractive way, the more time the interviewer has to determine whether the applicant will fit into the school and community. The National Rural Project lists the following information as important to collect and present:

- Availability and cost of housing.
- Assistance in securing housing.
- Average cost of essential goods and services.

- Community, civic, and religious organizations.
- Local and regional transportation.
- Medical services.
- Babysitting and daycare services.
- Employment opportunities for spouses.
- School district salary and benefit information.
- Monthly community calendars.
- Community and county services, including law enforcement, sanitation, waste removal, and fire protection.
- Data on individuals, couples, and families of various ages; interests and backgrounds in the community.

Promotional literature and photographs are helpful. Materials should be packaged handsomely, since a district's professional portfolio helps create a positive first impression.

Attractive school logos and clear forms help. Many large districts are willing to lend their forms and formats virtually unchanged to small and rural districts who need a start. Other valuable information that has been shared with good results includes school annuals and staff handbooks, multiyear manpower plans, program descriptions, students achievement records, staff profiles, and descriptions and examples of unique resources.

Some rural districts have decided that applicants are likely to feel a sense of belonging to the larger community when a variety of brochures and other materials in the portfolio reflect local businesses, welcome wagons, civic clubs, and other groups who assist the school.

Paperwork support

Files on applicants should be complete. Proper forms and procedures should be in place for collecting application, reference, and rating forms and answering written and telephone inquiries. A brief and thoughtful letter regarding the interview outcome can be a mark of distinction. Even if candidates are unsuccessful, they may share the letter with others, indirectly becoming a member of the district's extended recruiting team.

Attention to detail and small differences in the way competing education agencies present themselves and what they offer can determine which district succeeds in hiring the best candidates. Some districts have gone so far as to work with the U.S. department of agriculture to provide low cost living quarters in order to gain a competitive edge. Others have provided "teacherages," houses attached to the school at which the teacher is working.

Cheerleading by the Community

Image development begins at home. Successful leadership, outstanding instructional programs, and effective public relations contribute to a national image. Local residents must be made aware of the quality job that "their" educators are doing so that they can promote the school system. Teacher aides and support staff must convey a positive image for themselves and their schools. District leaders who can instill pride in the appearance of students, staff, and facilities have seen positive results when it is time to recruit teachers and other personnel. Teachers often make meaningful contributions and give unique perspectives when they participate in candidate interviews. Some rural districts select local people to serve as tour guides and school advocates.

A satisfied community usually carries forward a positive image outside the district and creates an important impression on potential teachers. Visitors and friends of the school staff have been known to locate qualified teacher applicants.

Publicizing Vacancies

Experience has shown that in many states, education graduates from certain schools nearly always accept teaching positions in urban or suburban districts. In order to be productive with limited time, money, and talent, rural schools do best to recruit at colleges that traditionally serve rural markets or have rural training projects. A growing number of higher education institutions have such projects, centers, and programs.

Some programs specialize in employment problems and special needs of children and youth in rural schools. Western Washington University operates a special education teacher training program, the National Rural Project and ACRES Rural Job Services. New Mexico Highlands University trains individuals for rural multicultural, bilingual communities in the Rocky Mountain West.

Establishing formal relationships with specialized institutions can be beneficial. Practicing rural educators who lecture before teachers-in-training can make important additions to college course work. Financial compensation seldom is offered, but the experience of working with future teachers can be stimulating and enhance one professionally.

Included among the university-based small and rural school programs are:

- Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah
- Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.
- Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colo.
- East Carolina University, Greenville, N.C.
- Eastern Oregon State College, La Grande, Ore.
- Gonzaga University, Spokane, Wash.
- Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kan.
- New Mexico Highlands University, Las Vegas, N.M.
- New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, N.M.
- Southwest Texas State University, San Marcos, Texas
- Southwest State University, Marshall, Minn.
- Texas Tech University, Lubbock, Texas
- University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, N.D.
- University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, Iowa
- University of South Dakota, Vermillion, S.D.
- Washington State University, Pullman, Wash.
- University of Vermont, Burlington, V.T.
- Western Washington University, Bellingham Wash.

This is also a time for district teachers to make personal contact with students and collect mailing addresses for later recruitment. Officials at Carrizozo Municipal Schools in New Mexico have encouraged teachers to take professional leave for one session to teach in colleges of education. These practitioners are able to convey the realities of rural life and education and encourage prospective graduates to consider starting their careers in Carrizozo.

Van Sweet, superintendent of the Dos Palos (California) Joint Elementary School District makes personal contact with universities by letter, phone calls and occasional visits. Universities then send him computer printouts with background data on applicants, occasionally identifying the best candidates for particular positions. Placement offices also inform local schools in his district about the number of graduates in each discipline.

Other groups to target for recruitment include:

- College and universities that wish to improve student admissions from rural areas.
- Land grant colleges already familiar with services to rural areas.

- State departments of education staff.
- Placement and career centers.
- Subject area professional organizations, such as the National Council of Teachers of English and the Council for Exceptional Children.
- Administrator or board member organizations such as the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Asssociation or their state affiliates.
- Education office personnel organizations within the state.
- Regional and statewide informal networks.
- Personnel departments of urban and suburban school districts.

Vacancy announcements must extoll the virtues of the school district, the community, and the students. The network of recruiters can extend to colleagues and associates in other school districts, regional and state education agencies, and the education business field. School products salespeople, for example, can spread the news of openings and application information if they are informed about a district's recruiting needs. The broader based a recruiting network is, the greater the likelihood of a large and qualified selection of candidates. The best recruiters advise following these guidelines:

- Develop clear and concise job announcements, vacancy descriptions, and eligibility qualifications distinguishable from those of other districts.
- List vacancies as widely as possible in placement centers, urban newspapers, and organization newsletters.
- Develop attractive promotional brochures and defray costs with funds from the state extension service, local economic development district, or chamber of commerce.

Some districts find that publicizing incentives helps attract qualified teachers. Some promotion ideas that have been used successfully include:

- Arranging interest-free loans to help with moving expenses.
- Picking up travel and other costs for employment interviews.
- Stating any attractive benefits such as high salaries, increments for extracurricular duty assignments, broad-based insurance and health benefits, and leave allowances.

One incentive that has special appeal to local residents is a practice whereby a local community member is sent to college on a district-paid scholarship in return for several years service to the school district.

Recruiting efforts often require special contacts for the hard to fill jobs, including coaches and special educators. Some districts establish a day when college admissions and placement directors can visit and acquaint themselves with the district. Others have held a regional recruiting event or "job fair" in a central location convenient to several small and rural school districts.

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Chapter V

Retaining Quality Staff: Helping Teachers Acclimate and Grow

Individuals most likely to stay in rural school districts are those with lifestyles, expectations, goals, and mores compatible with a community's majority. Helping new teachers acclimate, therefore, is an important part of a recruitment and retention program. Experts suggest that employment interviews should include information about the measures a school district takes to retain good teachers and help them adjust to rural life.

Surveys conducted by the National Rural Project show that adjustment can be eased when new staff learn about the local power structure and the community's communication systems. Researchers have concluded also that officials need long term strategies in place to tackle a district's problems. A district's interest in solving problems regarding scarce resources and services, for example, makes it easier for a new staff member to envision staying in the community and becoming part of it.

Many rural and small schools have developed ideas to help teachers find their place within the school and community. Van Sweet of the Dos Palos Joint Union Elementary School District in California suggests a one-day orientation program of preservice education for new faculty prior to the arrival of returning staff for the start of school. The information activities help to establish an early sense of employment security, he says. The day-long session should be followed by a social gathering for faculty, spouses, members of the board of education and administrators. During the next 30 days, the building principal and superintendent should have a short follow-up session to answer and resolve problems that have arisen.

Here are other suggestions that rural and small schools have used to help their staff acclimate and grow professionally:

- Establish a colleague support program by pairing established staff members with new staff during the initial adjustment period.
- Promote employee assistance through district services or by referral for staff members with personal problems that affect their ability to teach.
- Bring recognition to new staff members and the accomplishments of returning staff through broadcast and print media and presentations at board of education and civic organization meetings.
- Assist in the acquisition of awards, grants, and other honors for staff and students. Seek opportunities to win staff awards on the local, regional, state, and national levels.
- Seek grants, scholarships, and travel stipends for teachers from agencies outside the district.
- Assign faculty in their area of certification, supporting their efforts to be competent and creative.

Suggestions from the National Rural Project include:

- Placing new teachers in leadership positions in activities that will enhance external cultural perspectives of the staff.
- Initiating intra- or interdistrict short term exchange programs, sometimes relying on the bartering system to exchange talented personnel.
- Creating inservice incentives such as release time, college credit, and certification renewal.
- Providing challenging assignments as part of preservice or inservice programs.
- Establishing merit increases and other bonuses for extraordinary performance.
- Developing activities that will reduce stress, including social functions, physiological stress reduction exercises, and opportunities for "venting."
- Creating higher-than-usual salary supplements.
- Giving itinerant staff members who have no permanent office and others who must undergo trying circumstances opportunities for peer recognition. One effective technique is to hold social events in order to publicize staff achievements.
- Using a management information system (manual card sorting

or computerized retrieval system) to link teachers who need to see certain theories work in practice with effective teachers who use them regularly with success.

Retention activities are interactive and work with an advantage in small and rural schools, which often have a closeness and warmth said to be lacking in many large schools.

Finding qualified teachers and holding onto them results from the creative use of these advantages.

Making Up for Preservice Training Deficiencies

Helping new staff members adjust to rural or small communities is a bigger problem when the educators feel they are not prepared adequately by college or university training programs for the realities of rural school life.

A 1980 federal briefing paper from the Office of Special Education Programs stated that acute shortages of rural special educators results because preservice programs have not prepared personnel who can adjust to the demands of remote, isolated, or culturally different rural areas. A 1983 poll of state directors of special education personnel, conducted by Smith and Burke, concurred that teachers are not prepared for the socialization of work in rural communities. These findings imply that inservice training for new teachers—special educators as well as regular educators—will have to fill the unmet needs of educators who come to work in rural or small schools.

Based upon these special education studies, there are certain understandings that new teachers should have in order to cope effectively with life in rural areas. These include:

- A district's plans to overcome problems in delivering services and resources.
- Information about rural geographic and socioeconomic subcultures, mores, and values.
- Techniques of working with rural peers, families, and communities, including transient populations.
- Methods of coping with remoteness to personal enrichment opportunities.
- Methods of reducing stress.

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HOW TO RECRUIT, SELECT, INDUCT, & RETAIN THE VERY BEST TEACHERS

Mary Cihak Jensen

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RECRUITING TEACHERS

Recruiting and selecting teachers may be the most important task school administrators perform. The quality of any school district depends more upon the quality of its staff than upon any other factor. Each time a teacher is hired, the local school and its district have an opportunity to improve instructional programs. This chapter describes the shortage of teachers, argues for vigorous recruitment efforts, and offers recommendations for attracting the most capable teachers.

Opportunity or Peril?

Over 1.3 million teachers will be hired in the United States between 1986 and 1992. These openings present a "window of opportunity" for school districts, according to Edwin M. Bridges. Such a vast influx of new teachers offers districts a chance to rapidly improve educational programs.

Yet, like many other opportunities, this one is fraught with perils as well as possibilities. As Bridges says, "Incompetent teachers inhibit student learning, consume administrators' time, and tarnish the reputations of colleagues." Estimating that 5 percent of teachers currently employed in United States public schools could be considered incompetent, Bridges warns that the hiring of inadequate teachers will continue unless more effective recruitment and selection procedures are devised. He recommends concentrating district resources, however scarce they may be, on the selection, evaluation, and development of probationary teachers.

Mistakes made in personnel selection are costly and have long-term effects; developing sound personnel practices can save districts money and increase efficiency. If districts are to fill the predicted vacancies with the most capable teachers, they must reform their recruitment and selection processes.

Competition for Candidates

The teacher marketplace is increasingly competitive. Districts that are able to offer employees higher salaries and pleasant working and living conditions may attract a large pool of qualified applicants. However, districts that are unable to offer these incentives—especially those in urban and isolated rural areas—already find it difficult to attract competent teachers. In most regions of the country, filling vacancies in math, science, foreign language, and special education has been particularly difficult.

The very reforms that are heralded as answers to education's problems ironically have also increased the demand for teachers. Reduced class sizes, stiffer graduation requirements, and new early education classes all require expanded teaching staffs. Increasing professional opportunities for women have also had an impact. Until fairly recently, teaching was one of the few careers pursued by women. Today, however, women have many more professional options, and they may weigh opportunities in education against those in other fields. As a result of these and other factors, the National Center for Education Statistics predicts a shortage of 18,000 teachers by 1987 and 278,000 teachers by 1991 (quoted by William Goldstein).

Not everyone agrees that these alarming projections of teacher shortage are accurate. Some administrators believe the teacher shortage will be restricted to inner-city schools or schools in isolated rural areas. They may find it difficult to believe positions in other areas will also fail to attract candidates. Yet even if some districts are able to attract numerous candidates to an advertised position, this does not guarantee that a capable teacher will be hired.

Competition between districts in the teacher marketplace has qualitative as well as quantitative dimensions. Schools that seek qualified personnel are hampered in their search by national problems of inadequate academic standards and teacher preparation. One state's experience is unfortunate but not singular: 45 percent of the teacher trainees taking the Arizona Teacher Proficiency Exam failed. Other states report lowering the passing level of examinations to have an adequate number of teacher candidates.

Historically, college students who major in education have been, as a group, less academically able than most other college students. Gary Sykes cites studies as early as 1928 that reported standardized test scores were lower for students majoring in education than for those pursuing any other college major. Between 1951 and 1953, education majors scored lowest among the men who took the Selective Service Qualifying Test, an examination of both verbal and quantitative ability. Graduate Record Examination scores of education majors declined significantly between 1970 and 1982.

There is some evidence that this trend may now be reversing. The Scholastic Aptitude Test scores of prospective teachers are beginning to rise faster than the national average.

Academic and intellectual skills are only one set of prerequisites for the capable teacher. As Phillip Schlechty explains, personal qualities are equally important:

> What is needed in schools are persons who are tender of heart and extraordinarily sensitive to the needs of students. Such persons are not ordinary in any society. Perhaps it is time we consider extraordinary means of selecting them. Caring for a persistently misbehaving child, understanding that a child's insults should not be taken personally, and believing that every child can learn are no more "normal" in our society than is the disciplined response of a defense attorney who is defending a mass murderer or the disciplined aesthetic attitude that permits a physician to lance a festering wound without becoming ill. Being a member of a fully developed human service occupation requires one to make abnormal (disciplined and controlled) responses to difficult circumstances.

Examples of Aggressive Recruiting

With a national applicant pool that contains academically and socially unqualified individuals, districts need strategies that will increase their odds of finding the qualified candidates. Districts with severe shortages are often the first to use creative options. Personnel directors in major urban areas have both issued emergency credentials to suitable but untrained candidates and recruited internationally for hard-to-fill positions. Still others take a long-term approach, recruiting for potential teachers among high school students and establishing scholarships for teacher education.

Districts increase their odds of hiring the "best" when they seek a large number of applicants. The need to recruit aggressively is even more imperative when districts seek teachers for inner-city or rural settings, when they need instructors in high-demand subject or specialization areas, and when they face rising enrollment. In such cases, personnel officers no longer wait for applicants to come to them: they seek candidates on college campuses and at regional recruitment conventions. In some states, both inner-city and rural districts attract applicants by promising benefits ranging from bonuses to relocation services to reductions in rent. Educators may learn from the example of industrial leaders who recruit continually, believing that ongoing recruitment increases the organization's productivity.

Industry's active recruitment on college campuses offers a model that has been adopted by some school districts. One Northwest school personnel officer visits teacher training institutions annually to obtain a list of outstanding student teachers. He invites them to visit the district, observe its programs, and participate in "getting acquainted" interviews. Another personnel officer starts even earlier: she recruits high-achieving education majors for student teaching positions in her district.

For a field often considered noncompetitive, education has recently seen increased competition for personnel. Districts that seek talented, experienced teachers are more likely to "go out after them." It is no longer uncommon for personnel officers to recruit teachers employed by neighboring districts. Teachers with a reputation for excellent performance are invited to interviews in which as much time is spent selling the potential employer as learning about the candidate. Whether a district recruits student teachers, education majors, or experienced instructors, continued contact with the most promising individuals increases the strength of their relationship to the district.

Administrators of isolated rural schools face unique challenges in recruitment. Potential applicants may know more about rural schools' disadvantages than about the advantages they frequently offer—smaller classes, greater participation in decision-making, community support. One superintendent of a rural school district sees recruitment as a combination of search, salesmanship, and followup. Her search is enhanced by the relationships she maintains with university placement officers and with student teacher supervisors. "They know me and they know my school," she says. They probably also know by now that she wants and gets top candidates. Seven years ago, she had six applicants for a teaching position; after energetic recruitment at the universities, she now considers up to sixty applicants for each position.

Her efforts don't stop there: she considers the interview an opportunity to sell her school to valued contenders. She thanks them for their time, offers a tour of the school, coffee or tea, and her finest salesmanship. Many exceptional teachers recruited through this process say her district was the only one that revealed so much about its programs during the interview, the only district that spent time encouraging applicants' interest.

When this carefully designed selection process is used, more than one candidate typically emerges as exceptional. To demonstrate her interest in top candidates, the superintendent includes followup in the process:

> Sometimes the top three candidates are so close it's nearly a flip of the coin. I don't want to lose the other two. I follow them for some time, sending Christmas cards, for instance, letting them know we are still interested in them. If a single element in their background discouraged me about them, I tell them. If they have a weak preparation in mathematics, for example, I recommend additional courses.

Energy and candor have brought a constant stream of candidates to this rural school. In this, as in other successful recruitment campaigns, teachers are attracted to the personality of both the recruiter and the district.

Incentives to Attract the Best

Undeniably, a district's sincere interest and honest communication maintain a pool of loyal applicants. Yet even these consistent recruitment efforts may not be enough to fill teaching positions in high-demand areas. As shortages increase, the most capable candidates can choose from among multiple job offers. To counter competition, administrators, school board members, and community leaders can join forces to provide incentives designed to attract the best. The variety of incentives used in school districts testifies to the creativity of educators and their communities.

Recognizing that salaries influence applicants' job choices, districts committed to hiring capable teachers aim first to increase wages and benefits for beginning teachers. In some areas of the United States, school districts entice experienced teachers by increasing the number of years of experience that can be applied on existing salary schedules. Financial bonuses have been offered for teachers in highest demand — special education, math, and science instructors. Local businesses cooperate with other districts to offer candidates free interview trips, reduced household moving costs, relocation services, subsidized rent, low-interest loans, guaranteed summer employment, or discounts at restaurants. In many cases, the emotional support of the community that accompanies the financial incentives is as important as the incentives themselves.

One district fashions its incentives to specifically match its goal of attracting academically and socially capable applicants. The personnel director and school board, reasoning that gifted teachers value professional growth, offer graduate school tuition, accelerated sabbaticals, and extensive staff development opportunities.

Beyond monetary considerations, candidates seek attractive working and living conditions. The reputations of both the school district and the community influence teachers in their employment decisions. Schools that offer a professional environment—manageable class size, supportive inservice, capable leadership, staff collegiality and cohesion—attract and keep highly qualified teachers. Districts that provide supportive yet stimulating work environments and communities that welcome the educator will find teachers when others will not.

Recommendations for Improving Recruitment

1. **Develop policies and budgets.** As a beginning, school boards need to adopt written policies that declare the district's commitment to hiring the most qualified teachers. They need also to authorize budgets that allow creative, aggressive recruitment.

2. **Select recruiters carefully.** Since a candidate's first impression of the district is often based on his or her perception of the recruiter, the recruiter must be an individual capable of projecting the district's interest in, support of, and fairness toward its employees. The recruiter also must be able to represent the community as a whole as well as the district.

3. **Recruit throughout the year.** Too many recruitment efforts are hampered by the mentality that there is a recruitment "season." Because continuous recruitment requires more extensive recordkeeping, some districts track candidates and their qualifications

through computer database systems. In some districts, retired administrators are hired as part-time consultants who review the applications and verify qualifications and references. After this initial screening, the applications of promising candidates are sent to school site administrators.

4. **Be prepared to "sell" the district and area.** Successful recruiters use a variety of channels—brochures, displays at conventions, and interviews—to publicize the attractiveness of their schools and community. Incentives offered by the community demonstrate respect and support of the accomplished professional. These indicators of support may be as important as the incentives themselves.

5. **Combine efforts to recruit teachers.** Recruitment efforts consume finances and energies. Small districts can centralize recruitment efforts and ensure that qualified candidates are attracted to their area. Regional or statewide clearinghouses for applicants match potential teachers with openings in districts. Regional recruitment fairs, until recently considered a technique of the past, are increasingly popular solutions to personnel directors' dilemmas. The lost art of recruitment appears about to be reborn.

6. **Publicize your intention to obtain qualified staff.** It is time to turn around a self-fulfilling prophecy. William Goldstein contends that the bleak statistics of inadequately prepared teacher candidates have made it less likely teaching will be chosen as a career by the brightest students. A district's heightened expectations—determination to find the most capable—can help to reverse that trend. Some of the best and brightest can be attracted both to teaching and to those districts that seek the most capable.

HOW TO

RECRUIT,
SELECT,
INDUCT,
&
RETAIN

THE VERY
BEST
TEACHERS

SELECTING TEACHERS

Recruitment is only a first step toward the hiring of capable teachers. From among the applicants, districts must choose the best person to fill the vacancy. Making that choice is not easy: administrators tell of tedious decision-making and, worse, of serious consequences of mistakes. This chapter considers the possibility that the most capable candidates for teaching positions may not be the first hired. It offers explanations for this phenomenon and guidelines districts may follow as they seek to reverse this trend.

Are the Best Hired?

Current studies suggest that school districts may not be allocating adequate time, energy, and money to the selection of teachers. If teacher selection practices are as flawed as some recent studies suggest, school districts may not be able to benefit from renewed efforts to upgrade teacher training.

With the amount of public attention drawn to the quality of teacher training institutions, one would think that teacher education graduates who have the "best" academic qualifications would have a distinct advantage in securing a teaching position. But could it be that despite the concern about the qualifications of student teachers and the performance of training institutions, school districts themselves do not seek the most academically talented graduates? Could school districts be contributing to the problems of teachers' competency by not preferring the most promising candidates?

Recent studies support a hypothesis proposed by W. Timothy Weaver: methods used to select and place teachers do not result in more academically competent teachers being hired. In Weaver's study, subjects who had lower test scores on four out of five measures of academic competence in mathematics, reading, and vocabulary

Certainly, selection strategies are becoming at once more thorough and more sophisticated. There is nonetheless no panacea for those who seek to choose the best teacher.

Recommendations for Improving Selection

1. **Develop written policies for selection.** Just as the district needs written commitment to the recruitment of capable teachers, it also needs policies that establish guidelines of fairness to candidates, require intensive job analysis prior to hiring, and encourage validation of locally devised procedures.

2. **Treat candidates with fairness and respect.** Federal and state legislation mandates minimum standards of fairness to candidates. The legal standards are truly minimal; in addition, districts are ethically bound to maintain honest and supportive communication with each applicant. A district's recruitment and selection campaigns are marred when its employers lack integrity. Districts justly inherit poor reputations when candidates are subjected to interviews whose conclusions are preordained, when applications are treated with disinterest and disrespect.

3. **Train those who select teachers.** Those who select teachers need training in job analysis, legal guidelines, and multiple assessment techniques. Without training, their choices may be unduly influenced by factors such as attitude congruence, first impressions, and personal biases. Training of interviewers should include audio and video records for their own and peer review.

4. **Involve more people in the decision.** Asking final candidates to proceed through a series of assessments and interviews with district personnel can be viewed as an insurance policy in selection. The use of selection teams can increase the reliability of interviews by combining the judgments of several individuals. To minimize the undue influence of any one selection team member, use written and independent evaluations before seeking consensus on decisions.

Using more than one interviewer does not, however, guarantee freedom from bias. Members of selection teams must ask themselves in what way even their collective choices may be influenced by an attraction to applicants of similar attitudes or quality. Hiring a new teacher is an opportunity to fill gaps in a faculty's talents as well as a chance to find a colleague who will work well with the existing team. Group processes can allow a school staff to examine consciously its needs and preferences, to form insights about its choices, and to develop a structure in which to use those insights.

5. **Consider a variety of information about candidates.** A combination of cognitive, academic, and personal characteristics predicts success as a teacher. No one technique offers a panacea in teacher selection. Research supports only multiple, thorough assessment. Districts can screen candidates initially on ability and achievement measures—GPA, student teaching performance, scores on basic skills and verbal ability tests, recommendations verified by telephone. After this initial process designed to identify the most academically qualified, districts can assess personal skills through structured interviews, seeking signs of commitment, integrity, empathy, and energy.

Even a combination of interviews, tests, and transcripts may not give a district a clear idea of an individual's teaching skills. Districts are encouraged to experiment with more direct samples of teaching behavior such as live or videotaped demonstrations of teaching, sample unit plans, or lessons designed to meet objectives specified by the interviewers.

6. **Learn from successes and mistakes: validate your process.** Schedule an annual examination of the products of the district's hiring process. How well have the district's new teachers performed in the classroom? What are their areas of strength and weakness? How did or did not the hiring process predict those strengths and weaknesses?

Techniques of selection are best validated at the local level. Districts large enough to support a program evaluation department can use the resources of that office. Regional or statewide consultants can help smaller districts evaluate their choices and procedures. The cost spent in perfecting selection techniques is minimal compared to the financial and emotional cost of dealing with an incompetent teacher.

than beginning teachers report receiving. Why the discrepancy in perceptions? District programs of induction may be largely ceremonial and ritualistic, not addressing the needs newcomers identify as important. More informal district programs are built around those expressed needs.

In one district, during the first nine weeks of each school year teachers new to the district meet once a week with their school's administrators. The weekly meetings acquaint new staff members with district policies, procedures, and values. They also create supportive collegial relationships among the teachers and administrators. Agendas are set by the group: the needs and questions of the new teachers guide the sessions. One teacher describes the mutual support she received from peers:

> Sometimes we'd get together and tell horror stories. Then we'd talk about how we could make our classes better. As a new teacher you say to yourself, "It's just me. Nobody else is having this problem." Then, when everyone else shares what problems they are having, you find out that yours is a common challenge in teaching and that there are ways to solve it.

Cooperation Between Institutions

Who, after all, is responsible for the enhancement of new teachers' skills? Who should bridge the gap between teacher education and first-year teaching? Schlechty contends that the development of adequate induction systems requires a fundamental reorganization of schools' goal structures. "If induction systems are to work, schools will have to embrace teacher education as a goal, just as they now embrace the education of children as a goal."

Other models for induction combine the energies of school and higher education personnel. In this structure, teacher educators work with school district administrators and classroom teachers to ensure that the new teacher's transition from student teaching to full-time teaching is smooth. If professional development is to be truly continuous, it must begin at preservice training and continue through the teacher's career. At each stage, teams of district and site administrators, cooperating teachers, union leaders, and teacher educators join forces to prevent or eliminate gaps in training. Just as district personnel learn from involvement in teacher training, so do college instructors learn from observing their graduates one or two years after training. Each receives feedback essential to the improved performance of their function.

Recommendations for Improving Induction

The research on the induction of new teachers may be young, but the testimony of school districts argues strongly for the development of such programs. Programs that support beginning teachers are intended to enhance teacher competency, reduce teacher attrition rates, improve instruction, and strengthen the school as an organization. The following recommendations summarize the suggestions of the research and the current experience of school districts:

1. **View induction as part of teacher selection and staff development processes.** To achieve continuity between programs, induction is best seen as the link between recruitment/selection and continuous staff development. The goals and structures of induction programs exert an impact upon a district's selection procedures and staff development programs.

2. **Share research on the beginning teacher with school administrators and faculty.** School administrators, teachers' groups, and school boards may begin simply by paying attention to the needs of new teachers. Becoming aware of common problems newcomers face is a critical first step. During the initial weeks of any school year, the new teacher is likely to be forgotten while schedules are set and reset, classes aligned, texts distributed, faculty sessions held. At the very time when the new teacher's concern may be the highest, the school administrator is the busiest. The administrator who reviews the research on new teachers with his or her faculty sensitizes the staff to the needs of the newcomer and shares the responsibility for orientation and support.

3. **Share research findings on the beginning teacher with the beginners themselves.** Newcomers should understand the nature of the entry experience and learn how to seek information they need. Coming together in support groups will help them to realize that even though they have special needs, this does not mean they are "different" or "incompetent."

4. **Consider multiple models for induction.** No one model or program fits the needs of every school district, much less the needs of every new teacher. Districts can alter the degree of formality, the type of support, the level of staffing, and the choice of instruc-

tional format within induction programs to meet their own needs.

5. **Choose and train coaches, instructors, and mentor teachers carefully.** If the school's induction program includes training, increased supervision, or mentor teachers, the selection of personnel who will carry out these functions is critical. A variety of personal and professional skills are prerequisite to these assignments. It cannot be assumed that exceptional teachers will be exceptional communicators; training of coaches and mentors is necessary.

6. **Protect the assignment of new teachers.** In the past, new teachers have commonly been assigned to larger groups of students, more difficult classes, unpopular committees, multiple preparations and extracurricular tasks. Many new teachers have found their classrooms less desirable and ill equipped in comparison with other teachers' rooms and materials. Districts that protect the assignment of new teachers ensure that they receive a reduced or favored load, their classrooms are well equipped, and their materials equal those of the veteran staff members.

7. **Provide assistants for new teachers hired late.** Because districts frequently are unable to hire new teachers until enrollment is verified, it is not uncommon for new teachers to receive contracts the day before school opens or even after the opening of school. Conserving the energy of the new teacher for his or her job is a primary concern. Moving furniture, decorating bulletin boards, and assembling materials are tasks paraprofessional assistants can do. District consultants or recently retired teachers can assist the new teacher in the initial organization of the class.

8. **Increase, rather than decrease, supervision of new teachers.** New teachers apparently are not best "left alone to learn." Frequent classroom visits and conferences support the beginners' instructional goals and prevent them from repeating costly errors.

9. **Balance new teachers' need for training with their need for time.** If district training programs are to ease the newcomer's transition into teaching, they must be efficient and supportive rather than merely time- consuming and demanding.

10. **Form partnerships to support new and veteran teachers.** Experienced as well as beginning teachers profit from structures such as peer observation and coaching. If collegial structures are in place within a school, it is more likely beginning teachers will feel comfortable seeking assistance and less likely that they will equate

the seeking of help with loss of status or incompetence. In addition, individual schools are not alone in their concern for new teachers. Neighboring schools, the district office, local teachers' associations, and teacher education institutions share that concern. The combined resources of these groups strengthen a community's new corps of teachers.

Over time, perhaps the most significant contribution of induction programs will be the increased interaction they spawn among professionals in schools. Administrators and experienced teachers who unite to meet the needs of the newcomer develop in that process structures of collegiality and collaboration that will serve schools in other ways.

The following chapter considers a final question: once recruited, selected, and inducted, how may capable teachers be retained in their districts and in the profession?

RETAINING TEACHERS

Districts that commit energy and finances to recruiting, selecting, and inducting capable teachers face yet another challenge—retaining them. Research suggests that teachers in the higher ability ranges are most likely to leave the profession. Moreover, in a time of teacher shortages, even if the best teachers do not leave the profession, they may leave their current schools and districts. As competition for teachers increases, it is likely that neighboring school districts will begin to increase the incentives offered to experienced teachers. Consequently, talented teachers will be able to choose between organizations.

The same conditions that attract good teachers can keep them: competitive wages, prestigious and meaningful work, professional working conditions, and opportunity for growth. In each of these categories, this chapter examines factors that cause the attrition of talented teachers as well as conditions that encourage their retention. Finally, it offers recommendations for school districts determined to keep the best.

Competitive Salaries

Teachers in the higher ability ranges appear to leave teaching in disproportionately greater number than do those in the lower ability ranges. Noting that his state is representative of teacher retention rates nationally—for every 100 beginning teachers, 50 remain after five years—California Superintendent of Schools Bill Honig finds that those who remain are, on the average, less academically capable than those who leave. He attributes this attrition of the most academically capable to both inadequate pay and poor morale.

Researchers William Baugh and Joseph Stone found that, as a group, teachers are at least as responsive as other workers to wage differences between their current and potential positions that would cause them to change jobs.

The most qualified teachers have excelled both in their academic

Opportunity for Growth

The Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy's report *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the Twenty-First Century* contends that the essential resource for improved schools is already within those organizations: determined, intelligent, and capable teachers. Such teachers are stimulated by their own growth as well as by the growth of their students.

One particularly talented elementary teacher described her reasons for staying in the profession. I'm refining my skills each year, so each year I feel even better about what I'm doing." Learners themselves, the most competent teachers value their own continued education.

Continued education is often a collegial experience. According to the Carnegie report, if teachers are to work collaboratively, taking collective responsibility for student growth, they must have time together to reflect, plan, experiment, and innovate. In addition, exceptional teachers are stimulated by formal staff development, participation in classroom-based research, and opportunities to earn respect and compensation in peer leadership roles.

Recommendations for Improving Retention

Districts that recruit, select, and induct the most talented teachers must also plan to retain them. The following suggestions are derived from research and the experience of school districts:

1. **Consider the emotional as well as the practical messages of wages.** Low salaries are a recurring reason for the attrition of talented teachers. In determining the proportion of the district budget that will be allocated to teacher salaries, realize that the wage as well as the manner in which it is given may be symbolic of community and administrative support of teachers.

2. **Explore methods of increasing compensation to exceptional teachers.** States and districts intent upon retaining talented teachers consider options including merit pay, stipends for services such as mentor teaching and peer coaching, and summer pay for serving on curriculum development or textbook selection committees.

3. **Applaud teachers' accomplishments within the district and community.** Recognition and support for their achievement encourage talented teachers.

4. **Provide efficient systems for using teachers' professional judgment.** If schools are to keep top professionals who desire control over their work, they must fashion structures to obtain teachers' input to instructional decisions. Organizational systems such as grade-level meetings, administrative cabinets, quality circles, and topic-centered teams allow participation in the essential decision-making of a school. Unless such structures are organized to use participants' time efficiently, they may have a negative rather than a positive effect on classroom instruction.

5. **Provide adequate material and personnel resources for classrooms.** The most intellectually capable teachers cite inadequate classroom resources as reasons for their disillusionment with the profession. The talented professionals' skills are used appropriately and their creativity is heightened when they have access to new, stimulating classroom texts and materials. Similarly, capable teachers are likely to be capable managers; providing teachers with paraprofessional aides who can assume nonteaching duties will allow teachers to focus upon and perfect the instructional role.

6. **Capable teachers need capable administrators.** Talented teachers may leave schools and districts to follow equally talented leadership. If a district seeks teachers of high academic and cognitive ability, it must also provide administrators of that caliber.

7. **Provide professional and personal development.** Talented teachers seek opportunities for both professional and personal growth through formal and informal sources. Collegial interaction, research grants, classroom observations, courses, and conferences stimulate those whose career choice has been influenced by their own love of learning.

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National Association of Secondary
School Principals.

Attracting and Retaining Quality Teachers Through Incentives

The use of incentives to attract and retain teachers has become an important policy issue in the reform movement in many states. Important though this reform may be, when districts design an incentive framework, few of the alternatives are based on teacher suggestions or needs.

By Jeri L. Engelking

FEWER STUDENTS in the 1980s are preparing to become teachers than prepared a decade ago.

A national study of teaching conducted by C.E. Feistritzer (1983) revealed that fewer than 5 percent of the full-time college freshmen in 1980 chose teaching as a probable career as compared to 19 percent in 1970.

College and university students with the highest academic rankings also have less interest in becoming a teaching professional than did similar students 10 years ago.

Vance and Schlechty (1982) reported that students entering teaching in the 1980s have significantly lower college entrance scores, and that their scores on such tests as the Graduate Record Exam (GRE) and the National Teacher's Examination (NTE) have declined from 10 years ago.

Inability To Recruit, Retain

Some of the problems associated with the inability to recruit and retain these high ability students into a teaching career have been identified as:

- Low salaries
- Little prestige in teaching
- An abundance of already-certified teachers, many of whom have experience
- Limited career options in the educational field
- Unattractive working conditions.

Low beginning salaries and small salary increments are discouraging people from entering or remaining in the teaching profession. Annual raises in teaching salaries have not kept pace with the economy.

In response to the difficulty of living on a typical teacher's salary as the main source of income, Ernest Boyer reported in *High School* (1983) that nationally, about 29 percent of teachers moonlight at a second job after school hours and some even hold a third job.

He also reported that 36 percent of teachers hold extra summer jobs to supplement their teaching salaries at an average of $3,100 for the summer.

Lack of prestige in teaching is also frequently mentioned as an impediment to attracting and keeping high caliber students. This concern of low prestige coupled with society's declining confidence in the public schools, and, according to recent Gallup polls, the apparent loss of support from parents and students, has made teaching a less attractive career choice for many of today's college students.

The decline in student enrollment in the public schools since the early 1970s has resulted in an overall reduction in the number of actual teaching positions available (Griffith, 1983). This, along with changes in the entry requirements for teacher education training programs, has contributed in part to the large number of certified teachers during the latter part of the 1970s and early portion of the 1980s (Blume, 1984).

Limited professional opportunities available for teachers have also added to the difficulty of attracting and retaining qualified individuals. Graduates in other disciplines—law or business administration, for example—can pursue many other occupational avenues as a direct result of their training (NASSP, 1984).

In contrast, teaching in a classroom is viewed as isolated and as a terminal position with few options.

Inadequate time for class preparation, conflict with superiors and peers, lack of administrative support, and student misconduct have also contributed to decisions not to enter or to later leave the teaching profession (Goodlad, 1983; Boyer, 1983).

While they are still students, many teaching candidates have a chance to witness firsthand the conditions under which they will be teaching. These conditions have included:

1. Poor physical facilities and outdated buildings
2. Excessive paperwork and interruptions
3. Large class loads and extra duties outside the regular classroom
4. Breakdowns in communication and authority
5. Feelings of inadequate help and support in the classroom from superiors
6. Student behavior problems.

According to a 1984 report from the National Association of Secondary School Principals, many teachers fail to enter, or leave shortly after entering the teaching profession, ". . . because the job of teaching fails to meet their original expectations and offers too few intrinsic rewards to compensate for this failure."

Is it any wonder, then, that many of the best and brightest teachers leave the profession or never enter it?

Keeping Teachers Motivated

Changes in our current system are needed in the areas of career rewards and work rewards to make the teaching profession a more attractive occupation.

The profession should be able to not only recruit capable and qualified mem-

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hers, but also to retain them.

Further efforts must be made to enhance and supplement existing rewards for teachers by providing opportunities for advancement and professional growth and by alleviating conditions in the schools that limit the realization of intrinsic rewards that are a major source of teacher job satisfaction (Engelking, 1986).

Keeping teachers motivated once they are in the profession is also a growing problem. Job stress, alienation, feelings of ineffectiveness in the classroom, and frustrating working conditions all contribute to this lack of motivation.

Motivation is also hindered by the scarcity of opportunities for teachers to move into positions requiring more skill and expertise. Administrative positions are usually the only upward route available to a teacher, and these are diminishing in number because of declining enrollments, tighter budgets, and the requirements of a higher degree or certification in order to qualify for the job.

A tight economy with few job openings has also increased the need for security and a steady income, and at the same time has decreased the opportunities for teachers to move from job to job.

Many teachers feel stranded in a dead-end position with few opportunities for growth or expectancy of reward (Feistritzer, 1983).

Teachers value and are motivated by many different factors. Among them are collegiality, intrinsic rewards, mastery of subject matter, and working with young people (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1983).

Also identified as motivational for teachers are opportunities for achievement, opportunities for professional growth and advancement, and recognition for a job well done (Frase, Hetzel, and Grant, 1982). These factors, along with other motivating influences, all recognize and perpetuate excellence.

As reported by Paula Silver (1982), "The more frequently teachers receive praise, interesting responsibilities, growth opportunities, and chances for advancement as results of excellent teaching, the more likely they will be to perceive good teaching as instrumental in attaining these desirable indirect outcomes."

Investigating what motivates employees, therefore, can uncover many avenues and opportunities in which administrators can meet individual teachers' needs. Motivating needs such as the opportunity for success, recognition of good work, more responsibility, sharing in the decision-making process and its accountabilities, and the possibility for advancement could be addressed through the use of incentives or other approaches.

Incentives are used in a variety of ways by school districts to attract and retain teachers. They are most often based not on teacher needs or suggestions, but rather according to one or more of the following considerations:

- The proven ability of the incentive to attract and retain teachers
- The reasonableness of the cost of the incentive
- The ability of the incentive to motivate teachers
- The potential impact or likely level of change that can be expected from the use of the incentive
- The ease with which the incentive can be administered
- The likely acceptability of the incentive by teachers, administrators, and community members (NASSP, 1984).

Teacher Incentive Alternatives

According to an Educational Research Service report on merit pay (1983), incentives for teachers can be generally grouped into five categories:

1. *Compensation plans*, which include merit pay, bonuses, and various modifications in salary schedules

2. *Career options*, such as career ladder plans, career paths, or other similar changes in the traditional structure of the teaching career

3. *Enhanced professional responsibilities*, such as master teacher or mentoring programs, extended contracts for curriculum work or grant writing, and other ways of making the job of teaching more interesting by extending and varying a teacher's responsibility

4. *Nonmonetary recognition*, including awards, professional business cards for teachers, or methods of calling attention to teachers through their accomplishments

5. *Enhancing the working conditions*, so that teaching becomes more professional, enjoyable, and attractive because of the physical and social conditions under which teachers work.

An example of this last category is to convert an existing empty or unused classroom into faculty offices where teachers could meet with students, make telephone calls, or even write and conduct research.

The following list includes specific examples of incentives generated by teachers as ways to enhance and professionalize the job of teaching. It is not intended to be all-inclusive, but rather to exemplify some of the ideas teachers have set forth and to provoke thought by focusing on teacher suggestions rather than on administrative programs.

- Longer breaks [illegible] at the end of each nine-week period
- Released time to observe and work with peers in own school as well as in other districts
- Short-term sabbatical leaves for educational purposes from one week up to one month in duration
- Exercise fitness or wellness programs for faculty, set up at noon or before or after school
- Additional planning or preparation time
- Flexible scheduling, such as allowing teachers to come to school an hour later or an hour earlier, which lengthens the school day but provides flexibility in room and class scheduling
- Letters of commendation or appreciation for outstanding work or service
- Non-competitive awards such as business cards for teachers or birthdays off
- Recognition in the news media for outstanding service or contributions
- Employee of the month, term, and year awards
- Faculty or department lunches once a month paid for by the district
- Increased status through title (such as master teacher, senior teacher, or mentor teacher)
- Mini-grants ($1,000-$2,000) awarded for conferences or workshops
- Monies made available for teacher travel or program development
- Computers and computer training made available for faculty at district cost
- Opportunities for advancement made available such as career ladders or other alternatives
- More time and energy spent on development of staff communications and interpersonal relations
- Assigned parking spaces for faculty

- Secretaries for clusters or groups of teachers to utilize
- Adequate out-of-classroom storage for personal items, books, writings, etc.

No one incentive or system of incentives is a panacea for attracting and retaining teachers in every district, nor is it intended to do so. Rather, incentives provide a change process in which the focus is on the enhancement of the teaching profession and the values and attitudes held toward teachers.

Incentives as they are presented here are intended for use by administrators in helping teachers to feel better about themselves and to recognize the professional job that they are doing. Teachers and teaching are unique at all levels, and should be recognized as such. Incentives are a step in that direction.

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Increasing Minority Participation in the Teaching Profession*

Michael B. Webb

The number of new recruits to teaching is insufficient to meet present and projected needs, particularly among minorities. In 1974, 12.5 percent of full-time public school teachers were black (Froning, 1976). By 1983, the total of all minorities had decreased to 11 percent, despite widespread affirmative action during the period.

This trend has increased the possibility that a student may complete 12 years of public education without coming into contact with a minority teacher, thus distorting social reality for the child (Witty, 1982), denying the child successful minority role models, and suggesting that teaching is off limits to minorities.

One of the factors contributing to the decrease in minority teachers is that academically talented minorities now have more career choices available to them than in the past. These choices may offer greater financial rewards and better working conditions (Darling-Hammond, 1984). Low salaries and low occupational prestige are major reasons for difficulties in recruiting for the teaching profession (College Board, 1985). Other factors include restrictive bureaucratic controls, inadequate administrative support, and lack of opportunities for advancement (Darling-Hammond, 1984). Moreover, salaries and working conditions are often least attractive in schools with predominantly minority enrollments, where minority teachers might be interested in working.

The collapse of the teacher job market in the 1970s may also be shrinking the talent pool now available. The previous lack of good job possibilities for teachers may be continuing to lead potential recruits away from the profession, for they still may believe that there is a surplus of teachers (Witty, 1980).

Of course, minorities cannot become teachers unless they graduate from college. But education enrollment rates of blacks and Hispanics, which had been increasing, are now declining. Fewer minority students are entering college because of (1) less available financial aid; (2) the lack of a perceived relationship between a college degree and a good job; and (3) inadequate high school counseling, which leaves students ill-prepared for entering and succeeding in college (Hodgkinson, 1985; Ramon, 1986). Recruitment efforts also influence access to higher education (Crabtree, 1983).

Though black colleges historically have produced more than half of the nation's black teachers, their teacher training programs are being threatened (Wright, 1980). Many black schools and their education departments may lose their accreditation because they do not meet recent state mandates that a prescribed percentage of graduates pass competency tests. Since 1978, the number of new teachers produced by 45 predominantly black colleges has declined 47 percent (American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, 1983). Public concern over the quality of education has led to increased emphasis on teacher competency testing, although such tests have not been shown to predict effective teaching (Pugach & Raths, 1983). In states with competency testing, the failure rate for blacks and other minorities is two to ten times higher than that of whites (College Board, 1985; Gifford, 1985; Goddison, 1985). As minorities become aware of these statistics, they may reject a teaching career altogether, or at least reject states with competency testing (Hackley, 1985).

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The high rate of test failure for minorities reflects two critical conditions: a lack of interest in teaching by minority students who could easily pass the tests, and the general failure of education to teach students to read with comprehension, write clearly, and perform routine mathematical computations (Gifford, 1985; Witty 1982). It is possible also that the standardized tests are biased against minorities and low income students (Mercer, 1983).

Ironically, the Brown vs. Board of Education decision in 1954 may have contributed to the declining participation of minorities in teaching. Ethridge (1979) and Smith (1984a) note that the decision was followed by the loss of thousands of teaching jobs that would have gone to minorities under a segregated system, but which went to whites under the new integrated system. Seniority and tenure provisions won by teacher unions have also contributed to the loss of teaching positions held by minorities. Those dismissed during periods of enrollment decline and fiscal restraint are usually those with least seniority, and frequently those most recently hired are minorities (Encarnation & Richards, 1984; Trammer, 1980). Further, Gehrke and Sheffield (1985) show how the decision about whether to lay teachers off in an urban school district, or to place them in another content area was resolved more frequently in favor of white males than women and minorities.

In the past, major government-supported programs such as compensatory education and bilingual education increased minority teacher employment. The recent federal and state movement toward incentive grants and tax incentives may serve to diminish the direct and positive effects of government aid on minority employment by limiting or eliminating programs in which there is a high concentration of minority teacher employment (Encarnation & Richards, 1984).

To increase the number of minority recruits to the teaching profession, state reform initiatives should address the effects of educational deprivation resulting from weak programs in elementary and secondary education, which leave many minorities unprepared for a teaching career (Hackley, 1985; Hoover, 1984; Witty, 1982).

A special university-based preprofessional teacher preparation program would identify and recruit minority high school students interested in a teaching career (Gifford, 1985).

Financial incentives--scholarships, forgivable loans, etc.--would also attract talented students to teaching. Other proposals include more effective counseling when career decisions are being made, better minority recruitment efforts, and flexible admissions procedures in teacher preparation programs (Hackley, 1985; Mercer, 1984; Smith, 1984b).

Schools of education and teacher training institutions can play an important role in efforts to train minority teachers from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds. Several historically black colleges, notably Coppin State College and the University of Arkansas, have been successful in developing teacher education programs that emphasize early assessment to diagnose skills deficiencies brought from elementary and secondary education, and to provide appropriate tutorials, remediation, and workshops in test-taking techniques (Cooper, 1986; Hackley, 1985).

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KENNETH L. MOFFETT, JANE ST. JOHN, AND JO ANN ISKEN

Training and Coaching Beginning Teachers: An Antidote to Reality Shock

Support for Lennox, California, teachers in their first and second years keeps instructional quality high and faculty turnover low.

Kenneth L. Moffett, Jane St. John, and Jo Ann Isken, "Training and Coaching Beginning Teachers: An Antidote to Reality Shock," Educational Leadership (February 1987): 34-36. Reprinted with permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and Kenneth L. Moffett, Jane St. John, and Jo Ann Isken. Copyright (c) 1987 by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. All rights reserved.

Application and analysis are critical to program success. At left, a teacher applies a teaching strategy in a demonstration lesson, and at right, a trainee receives feedback from a trained observer

In the Lennox School District we confronted two staff development issues. We saw the difficult adjustments beginning teachers were making as they moved from the academic world to the real world of the classroom. At the same time, we saw the district's need to maintain a strong teaching staff capable of implementing a complex and demanding curriculum in the face of high turnover and a steady infusion of new teachers.

To address both issues we developed an inservice training program for all first- and second-year teachers, as well as for a small number of experienced teachers who were new to our district. We worked from three premises.

- Since teaching style may be developed early in a teacher's career (Blase and Greenfield 1982), it is particularly important to monitor teachers' early work in the classroom (Darling-Hammond 1984). This increases the likelihood that a teacher will develop a productive, professionally satisfying style that is consistent with district aims and philosophy.
- Since presentation of theory alone in inservice programs guarantees that only 5 to 10 percent of teachers will apply the new skills in their classrooms, it is important to follow the presentation of content with demonstration, practice, and individual

coaching. This pattern results in a 90 percent application of new skills (Joyce 1983).

- When teachers coach each other, it is possible to increase the number of "trainers" at each school and to build in a support system for teachers who want to continue to improve their skills.

Training and Coaching

We have developed a training and coaching program for new teachers that builds on six elements.

New teacher training. All teachers new to the district attend an intensive, week-long fall session that covers assertive discipline, clinical teaching, reading, and instruction in language and math curriculums.

Recruitment and training of peer coaches. Selected through a districtwide application process, coaches receive the same training as new teachers. They receive additional work in communication skills.

Release time or pay for training. Teachers who participate in training during their off-track time are paid at the standard daily rate for substitutes. Teachers who are trained during their on-track time are released from classes.

Practice and application. After attending training sessions conducted in the district board room, teachers practice with children in an adjacent elementary school. Immediately following the practice, trainees receive feedback from observers and other trainees with whom they are paired.

Pairing coaches and new teachers. Each coach is paired with one or two new teachers, usually from another school in the district. The district attempts to match teachers with Lennox coaches who have taught similar grade levels and instructional programs.

Observations. Coaches visit new teachers at least twice a month, sometimes more often. During these visits, a coach may observe a lesson, demonstrate a lesson in a designated subject, or provide constructive feedback and suggestions.

Confidentiality and Support

Every effort is made to keep the coach-teacher relationship low-key and strictly confidential. Most useful to teachers has been the inclusion of a training component responsive to their perceived needs.

Monthly follow-up sessions provide ongoing support. New teachers use these meetings to share experiences and help one another. Coaches also continue training to improve their coaching skills. Thus, in addition to the fall training week, teachers and coaches are released for two to three days of additional staff development, including a mid-year, full-day follow-up session at which new content is presented and motivational speakers are featured.

The Lennox program looks at the conditions that affect teaching style and helps teachers develop a productive, personally satisfying style that is consistent with district philosophy.

"Every effort is made to keep the coach-teacher relationship low-key and strictly confidential."

Teachers' Response

Response to the training has been enthusiastic. Teachers and coaches alike find in Madeline Hunter's clinical teaching model a useful framework for thinking and talking about effective teaching (Hunter 1984, pp. 175–177). The emphasis on positive reinforcement for appropriate behavior in the assertive discipline (Canter 1976) component of training has helped new teachers manage and discipline classes more effectively. Teachers report that the training sessions have either reviewed valuable material that has lain dormant, or have introduced knowledge and skills that, as one teacher commented, "We should have had . . . in teacher training."

Coaching. Teachers see their coaches as sympathetic colleagues with whom they can share doubts and frustrations. Almost without exception new teachers view coaches as helpful, understanding, and available when they need them. Moreover, working with a coach usually generates little stress, since the coaches do not super-

Teachers report that they see their coaches as sympathetic colleagues with whom they can share doubts and frustrations.

"Teachers report that the training sessions have either reviewed valuable material that has lain dormant, or have introduced knowledge and skills that, as one teacher commented, 'We should have had . . . in teacher training.' "

vise teachers. Their exclusive function is to help teachers assimilate and use what they have learned in the training sessions and to feel more productive and competent. One teacher put it this way:

> The coaching idea is great! I like having another teacher available as a resource. My coach is terrific. For one thing, she's modeled some lessons for me. It was extremely helpful to see her in action; it gave me a new viewpoint from which to present lessons.

Coaches see their role in fairly generous and expansive terms. One coach observed, "I'm working with three different teachers, and each has different needs." She continued:

> With one teacher, we've been refining discipline techniques; with another we've taken a close look at the reading program and how it might be improved; and with the third teacher we've spent time on how to make better use of her aide. The program is structured so I'm available as a resource, not as a judge. I hope the teachers I'm coaching feel free to ask me anything. (Goldenberg 1985)

From Novice to Professional

Our training program is an effective way to help new teachers ease into their professional roles by mitigating the reality shock and "loneliness of the workplace" (Veenman 1984). The training sessions and the continuing teacher/coach relationships help to stave off new teachers' isolation while increasing their competence. Although no single program can address all of a district's staff development needs, a training effort that combines theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching can help new teachers survive—perhaps even flourish—while enabling districts to maintain higher levels of professionalism among all teachers.

1. Our district operates on a year-round schedule with four staggered "tracks," each of which is in session for two to three months and on month-long break thereafter. At any given time during the year, one-fourth of the students and teachers are "off-track," that is, on their month-long break.☐

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Everyone's a Winner! Alternatives for Beginning and Exemplary Teachers

Partnerships between school districts and higher education can exist to the mutual advantage of preservice teachers, beginning teachers, and master teachers. This article describes such a partnership.

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To provide induction assistance for new teachers and a 2-year career alternative experience for exemplary teachers in the district, in 1986 the Jefferson County (Colorado) Schools Staff Development Academy entered into a partnership with two local institutions of higher education. A discussion is provided below concerning the need to reform teacher preparation, and a description is given of the Professional Alternatives Consortium for Teachers (PACT) that derived from Jefferson County's partnership with the local universities.

Reform Needs

The educational reform movement of the 1980s has criticized preservice teacher preparation programs and emphasized the need for teachers' ongoing professional development. Three concepts crucial to success of teacher preparation reform are (a) collaboration between school districts and colleges and universities, (b) differentiated roles for teachers, and (c) professionalism within the teaching profession.

Dr. John Peper, Superintendent of Jefferson County Public Schools, called for the exploration of designs and the development of action plans to involve both school districts and colleges/universities in the academic and clinical preparation of teachers (Peper, 1984). By building bridges, Peper envisioned a much closer tie between teacher training program schools and public schools.

School districts and colleges/universities can collaborate in the preparation of teachers. While academic content is clearly the responsibility of higher education, practitioners in districts could address teaching and management skills, including the theory and research base from which they emanate.

Another reason for collaboration between districts and colleges/universities is that beginning teachers still need to develop their teaching skills, even after completing a preservice teacher preparation program. New teachers often have extensive content knowledge, display strong human relations skills and interpersonal sensitivity, and possess firm educational values. However, while they have taken methods courses and participated in student teaching and other field experiences during the preservice program, new teachers often do not have a strong com-

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mand of basic teaching skills.

In fact, Odell, Loughlin, and Ferraro (1987) showed that first year teachers had a large number of questions and concerns in the areas of instruction, systems issues, availability of resources, and emotional support. Consequently, new teachers often face several years of trial-and-error efforts before becoming comfortable with daily operations. These teachers could benefit from an opportunity to systematically learn classroom management and instructional skills.

The second concept crucial to the success of teacher education reform is differentiation of teacher roles. Lead teachers with administrative responsibilities are mentioned in the Carnegie report (The Carnegie Corporation, 1986), while demonstration schools are discussed in the Holmes report (Holmes, 1986). Veteran teachers could benefit from greater involvement in preservice teacher training, in the ongoing professional development of inservice teachers, and in a variety of curriculum and instruction activities.

The third crucial area is the need for enhanced professionalism. Wise (1986) recommended the medical model of internship and residency for admittance into the profession. He also argued that, to attain professional status, teachers must take control of the certification process, as has occurred in other professions. This does not diminish the role of higher education, but expands teacher involvement.

The Professional Alternatives Consortium for Teachers

The Professional Alternatives Consortium for Teachers (PACT) is a pilot program with the University of Colorado at Denver, Metropolitan State College in Denver, and Jefferson County (CO) Schools. The program enables 20 new teachers to serve as **interns** while they complete a master's degree. The interns are certificated and have full classroom assignments while working on a master's degree at University of Colorado at Denver.

The program also provides for the release of ten elementary **support teachers** from their full-time classroom assignments to mentor the interns and to teach at University of Colorado at Denver and Metropolitan State College in their preservice program. Each support teacher spends 1 day a week with each of the two interns they have been assigned. Support teachers also teach one or two classes at the college or university and supervise student teachers. These activities provide support teachers with a 2-year career alternative as mentors, supervisors, and university instructors.

> ***The program enables 20 new teachers to serve as interns while they complete a master's degree. The interns are certificated and have full classroom assignments while working on a master's degree at University of Colorado at Denver.***

Program Costs

Funding support for this program is derived from reallocations of existing budgets at the three cooperating agencies. The school district supports the 20 teaching positions filled by the **interns** through resources originally budgeted for benefits and the average teacher salary. The college and university support the PACT **support teachers** through resources budgeted for college course instruction, intern supervision, and field supervision of student teachers. These total resources are then used to pay for the program expenses.

The costs are kept within the total of the originally budgeted revenues since the **interns** are paid a fellowship slightly below the beginning teacher salary, but they do not receive the district's benefits package. The college and university use the PACT **support teachers** in lieu of hiring extra faculty. The program costs include payment for a program liaison person, on district payroll, who is essential for the coordination of this program involving three institutions, and 30 people at 20 different elementary schools.

Selection of Support Teachers

Sixty Jefferson County elementary classroom teachers met to learn about features of the PACT program, qualifications of support teachers, and the expectations for those selected. A rigorous selection process was used. To qualify, support teachers needed a master's degree, five years of successful teaching with the Jefferson County Schools, and extensive experience in staff development as an inservice leader, mentor, coach, or building consultant. Successful involvement in leadership responsibilities, staff development, professional growth, and curriculum implementation was also required. Satisfactory performance evaluations were an absolute requirement, and multiple grade-level experience was a strong preference. Beyond these basic qualifications, demonstrated instructional and management skills were essential for support teachers. Equal emphasis was placed on demonstrated human relation skills with adults as well as with children.

In addition, the teachers who applied were interviewed and asked to critique a video tape of a new teacher and to write a course syllabus for a beginning course for the interns. Ten people were selected by a committee of district and college/university personnel.

> ***Beyond these basic qualifications, demonstrated instructional and management skills were essential for support teachers. Equal emphasis was placed on demonstrated human relation skills with adults as well as with children.***

Selection and Assignment Of Interns

PACT interns were selected from the district pool of new or recently hired teachers. They also met entrance requirements at University of Colorado at Denver for admission into a master's degree program. The district's Personnel Recruitment and Employment Department worked closely with the Staff Development Office to select and assign the 20 PACT interns. Principals sought PACT interns for their building because they were assured of a quality beginning teacher and because they were given extensive assistance to support this new teacher.

Advantages of the PACT Program

All three institutions, as well as all support teachers and interns, receive benefits from their involvement in the PACT program. First, the college and university have the use of support teachers, master teachers in their own right, to teach courses to preservice teachers and to supervise interns. The support teachers, considered clinical instructors, are adept at translating theory and research into practice. As a result, education students receive instruction from some of the best teachers currently employed by the district.

Second, the school district benefits through the thorough induction of 20 teachers. Because of this program, less time will be needed for a novice to become a skilled teacher. The district also benefits when the 10 support teachers return to their classrooms with new ideas, a broader perspective, and renewed enthusiasm.

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Third, support teachers and interns receive benefits. Support teachers had personal and professional experiences which accelerated their growth. A personal testimony by one of the support teachers reflects the emotions surrounding this positive experience (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

A Support Teacher's Testimony

I have been working in the PACT program as a support teacher for almost a year and am amazed at the growth that I have experienced in a relatively short time. It is truly exhilarating to work with other support teachers who are constantly stimulating my educational knowledge. The opportunity for a peer "study group" of this kind in education is rare.

Working With Interns

Working with interns has brought insights and frustrations. Remembering my own experiences as a young teacher, I realize how far I've come in the process of becoming a master teacher. I desperately want to share my knowledge and experiences to promote and expedite the growth process of the young teachers with whom I'm working. It's frustrating, yet necessary, to provide interns with information and then give time and space to allow them to grow. Internalizing change takes time and I get frustrated due to impatience to see results in the interns.

As I worked with my interns in their classrooms, my knowledge and techniques for working with them were coming from instincts and minimal experiences I had previously in unstructured peer coaching. I learned that my modeling of effective teaching practices in their classrooms enabled the interns to learn techniques more completely and quickly.

Modeling, however, was not an appropriate technique for every area of attention. Discussions and conferences were not effective in helping the interns until I learned the techniques of clinical supervision. I discovered that using the techniques of clinical supervision was critical to facilitate change both with the interns and the preservice teachers at the university.

Teaching University Courses

I never dreamed teaching university classes could be so exciting. I have the opportunity to provide instruction about effective teaching practices in education and I see that the university students are like sponges waiting to soak up every bit of information and every experience I can relate.

As part of course requirements, the university students spend some time teaching actual lessons in the schools using the effective teaching practices we considered in the college classroom. It is exciting for me to hear that their lessons have stimulated improvement in the classroom teachers with whom they're working.

My Reflections

At the time of accepting the position as a PACT support teacher, the security of returning to my original teaching position was an important consideration. As I fulfilled my duties as a support teacher, I had opportunities to work with interns, to teach university classes, and to come in contact with many schools. I could test and refine my communication and interpersonal skills, study the curriculum, and read research reports. Because of all these opportunities, returning to my previous teaching position became less important.

When I end my responsibilities as a support teacher next year, I think that teaching in my own classroom will seem inadequate for satisfying my professional needs and stimulating my growth as an educator. Yet I am aware that much of my effectiveness in my role as a support teacher is due to the fact that I'm "fresh from the classroom."

Can I go back to the classroom and still stay involved in some of the staff development situations that have been so stimulating and exciting for me? I can see that it would be satisfying to become involved in the district's peer coaching and mentoring programs when I return to the classroom. Staying involved with the university's teacher education program in some way also would offer options for professional growth. I hope district administrators will recognize my strengths and consider me for appropriate staff development roles when I return to the classroom.

I'm only beginning to realize my impact as I come in contact with young teachers, student teachers, teacher educators, principals, and school staffs. My experiences have been exciting and stimulating. If I have grown this much during one year of involvement, I can't imagine what another year will bring!

In discussing benefits of the PACT program, interns frequently mentioned assistance they received from support teachers. One intern wrote, "Support from the support teacher is accelerating my professional growth I'm learning things that would have taken me three years." This intern was motivated to enter the program primarily to receive help in "learning the curriculum." The idea of a master's degree was appealing for her, but was not her main reason for becoming a PACT intern. Although she enjoyed the academic aspect of the program, the support teacher's assistance was the major benefit.

For another PACT intern, the opportunity to improve teaching skills while earning a master's degree influenced her to apply for the program. "I want to focus on high-need kids," she said. Although she always planned to work on an advanced degree, she said she would not have been able to start so early in her career without the financial advantages of the program.

Interns reported that frustrations, self doubts, and mistakes they experienced were dealt with immediately. Support, reassurances, counsel, and advice provided by support teachers helped interns feel successful and effective with students. By being less reliant on trial-and-error learning, interns experienced success and were judged to be competent, professional teachers more quickly than if no support program had existed.

Incentives for Interns

The main incentive for participation by interns was the opportunity to earn a master's degree through a major university, with a portion of their tuition paid. By earning a master's degree, interns, once employed, would be able to have a significant increase in their salary in a relatively short amount of time. Interns also liked knowing that they would probably be viewed as strong teachers whom the district would like to hire.

Teacher Association Support

Recognizing the strengths of the PACT proposal, the Jefferson County Education Association (JCEA) cooperated with the Board of Education in agreeing to a Memorandum of Understanding outlining various aspects of the program.

Support and intern teachers in the PACT program were covered by the School District JCEA agreement (with the exception of the interns' salaries), and received all rights and privileges therein. Support teachers were not to do summative evaluations in their mentoring roles. Interns were covered under the state and district performance appraisal procedures. Evaluation PACT included JCEA representation and university college personnel.

What's Next?

Based on our experience with the PACT program, we can draw some conclusions and share some insights.

- It is critical that the program leadership have the mutual trust and support of all parties involved.
- All institutions involved need to attend to personnel issues and political realities.
- Time is needed to clearly delineate roles of the various institutions.
- Cooperative decision-making and professional sharing are necessary elements to the success of the partnership.
- Principals need to be involved in the placement of interns. While most principals like having interns, the actual placement of each intern needs to be a cooperative decision between the personnel department and the principal to assure success for the intern.

Strong interest exists for expanding the PACT program to secondary schools. Management of the program at the secondary level will be different since content areas of the participating teachers must be matched.

All 10 interns chose to participate a second year in the PACT program. What is the district's ongoing responsibility to these teachers? At what point should the district stop the support offered through the PACT program for these teachers? These questions will be addressed this year.

As we reflect on the experiences of the PACT program, we ponder, "Who is responsible for teacher preparation?" The answer clearly is both the university and the local district. □

> ***As we reflect on the experiences of the PACT program, we ponder, "Who is responsible for teacher preparation?" The answer clearly is both the university and the local district.***

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RURAL SCHOOL BOARDS AND TEACHER TRANSIENCE

Miles T. Bryant

This study first presents a small and not uncommon allegation about the way rural school boards treat teachers. That allegation is then evaluated by means of a brief empirical analysis of teacher experience in two groupings of Nebraska schools. Finally, some explanations are offered for the less than shattering evidence that teachers in small rural schools are a less experienced group than their larger school associates. In this study, larger refers primarily to the number of teachers employed by a local school district. Thus, a small rural school is distinguished from a larger one if it has one or two teachers in it and no more.

One does not see it in writing very often, but one hears it: rural school boards are loath to keep a teacher on the salary schedule for more than three years because that would mean tenure for the teacher. Hence, small rural schools are populated disproportionately with younger, inexperienced teachers. In this way, school boards are able to keep their primary costs down and perhaps not incidentally, keep control over the educational program of the small rural school.

This allegation runs somewhat counter to an image some of us have of the rural teaching matron who has presided over generations of scrubbed country children with a blend of kindness, discipline, rectitude, and common sense. We tend to think of this stereotypic rural teacher as an old warrior who has been about for a long time. Indeed, in contrast to the image of the transient country teacher, this image is the very nonpareil of stability and tenuredom. An image of the female teacher who by virtue of a force of personality and longevity grows into a local institution would belie the allegation that rural boards force a constant turnover on rural schools as a way of avoiding an employment commitment.

Which view of reality seems closest to the truth? Does the rural matron exist in great numbers in rural schools? Is there a demonstrable difference in the turnover patterns of teachers in smaller rural schools? How do years of experience contrast in different sized schools? The following addresses these questions by generating and analyzing a small empirical base.

Case Study

The study confines its analysis to data on years of service by teachers in Class I and Class II-III elementary schools in the state of Nebraska. Two random samples of schools were drawn — 42 Class I elementary schools and 26 Class II-III elementary schools.

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The Nebraska State Department of Education defines a Class I district as any one "that maintains only elementary grades under the direction of a single school board." Class II is a school district "embracing a territory having a population of one thousand inhabitants or less that maintains both elementary and high school grades under the direction of a single board." Ascending in order, Class III simply expands the pool of inhabitants within the school district's territory.

In each school, in each sample, the number of years of teaching experience reported to the state by the school district for each teacher was recorded for the academic year 85/86. The average years of teaching of all the schools' teachers, be it a one teacher school or a thirty teacher school, were computed. Then each school was allocated to one of five categories on the basis of its average:

0-3	Years of Experience
4-6	Years of Experience
7-9	Years of Experience
10-12	Years of Experience
13+	Years of Experience

Results

Table One below summarizes the data as organized in terms of years of experience.

Table One
Years of Experience by School Type

School Type	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	+13	Totals
Class I	22	11	4	1	4	= 42
Class II-III	0	5	12	7	2	= 26

Clearly there appears to be a preponderance of less experienced teachers in Class I schools. Class I schools place in the 0-3 fifty percent of their numbers or 22 schools in this category while the Class II-III schools place no schools in this category.

To determine whether the frequency distribution of the two groupings was indeed different, the table above was used as a contingency table for the Chi Square procedure to test whether different groups allocate members to categories with a different frequency. In short, does the Chi Square procedure support what the naked eye supposes — that rural teachers in Class I districts are more frequently less experienced? Table Two presents the expected and observed frequency distribution:

Table Two
Observed and Expected Frequencies

	Years of Experience Categories 0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13+	
Class I	$\boxed{14}$ 22	$\boxed{10}$ 11	$\boxed{10}$ 4	$\boxed{5}$ 1	$\boxed{4}$ 4	= 42
Class II-III	$\boxed{8}$ 0	$\boxed{6}$ 5	$\boxed{6}$ 12	$\boxed{3}$ 7	$\boxed{2}$ 2	= 26
	22	16	16	8	6	= 68

The data is nominal, ordinal, and non-normal. The Chi Square becomes an appropriate strategy for determining if the frequency with which the two groups fall in the Years of Experience categories differs.

With four degrees of freedom, a Chi Square statistic of 9.488 or greater is required to reject at the .05 confidence level the null hypothesis that no difference exists in the frequency with which the two groups of schools distribute the teachers in the categories.

In order to lay out the actual calculations for determining the X^2 statistic, Table Three illustrates the process.

Table Three

Observed	-	Expected	=	Squared/ Expected	=
22	-	14	=	(64)/14	= 0.071
11	-	10	=	(1)/10	= 0.1
4	-	10	=	(36)/10	= 3.6
1	-	5	=	(16)/5	= 3.2
4	-	4	=	(0)/4	= 0
0	-	8	=	(64)/8	= 8
5	-	6	=	(1)/6	= .166
12	-	6	=	(36)/6	= 6
7	-	3	=	(16)/3	= 5.33
2	-	2	=	(0)/2	= 0
				X^2	= 26.467

The computed Chi Square of 26.467 allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis, i.e., that no difference exists between the frequencies with which each group distributes its years of teacher experience. In short, the statistical procedure lends credence to what the naked eye observed. Small rural elementary schools tend to employ teachers with fewer years of experience than do larger rural or semi-rural schools.

Furthermore, of the twenty-nine small rural schools with one or two teachers as opposed to small rural schools with more than one or two teachers, the number of schools in which the average teacher experience totaled between 0-3 years was fourteen or 48%. In this particular random sample of Nebraska schools, there is a clear bias toward inexperience.

Discussion

The sample size upon which the frequency differences are based is too small to permit generalization to all rural schools with great conviction. The data supports the untested allegation that small rural schools are populated with less experienced teachers.

Does this greater proportional number of inexperienced teachers represent a change from what used to be? Are rural American teachers becoming less experienced and more transient? If so, is this because of some systematic pattern in the way boards of education treat these teachers or are there larger market and job conditions that contribute to these transient patterns? Perhaps the causes have not so much to do with the preferences of rural school boards as they have to do with the preferences of teachers. Teachers may simply prefer to go where there is more money — generally in the larger, more affluent districts.

There is no ready empirical evidence that helps provide answers to these questions. However, one can advance explanatory ideas. For example, a rural school board is composed of individuals who volunteer time to help run a small rural school. In a real sense, this board serves the school in an administrative capacity. This board may assume the burden of completing certain mandates from the state; it does not have the luxury of a large staff of professionals who operate the school system. The board's work is a mixture of policy and operations and makes demands upon them right through all the travails of their personal lives: harvesting, planting, child rearing or whatever. Rural boards like all volunteer boards have limited time to commit to school organizations.

Thus, one might argue that rural boards would like to diminish the cyclical search for a replacement teacher if only to avoid the crisis situations where time demands would be made. Rural boards would also, like any school board, seek to have an admired and respected, competent teachers in front of their pupils.

Thus, one can build a case that the incentives for rural boards would be more to retain teachers than to fire them. The limited empirical evidence, however, suggests these incentives may not be operating across the population of rural school boards.

It is probably true that for many boards monetary constraints drive personnel decisions. Thus, when a teacher comes up for tenure rural board members assess with care whether or not they want to tie the school to a particular teacher. Unlike larger schools, these small rural schools have limited degrees of freedom with respect to personnel. Tenure decisions become a matter of high seriousness.

It is also probably true that the more transient the board the more transient the teaching staff. In a small, rural school, the match between teacher and board is analogous to the match between superintendent and board in a larger school district. Research in this area suggests that the match of administrative and community or board style is significant. If the board's "style" constantly undergoes change as a result of turnover, then the chances of conflict between the teacher's "style" and the board's "style" increases significantly. In turn, this would increase the transiency rate of those teachers who serve in some managerial capacities.

However, as indicated above, the most ready explanation may not lie at the feet of school boards but may simply be a reflection of teacher preferences and educational career patterns. Pay differentials between small and large schools may give larger schools an edge. The quality of goods and services that teachers can purchase in larger communities may give larger schools an edge. Working conditions in larger schools may be more attractive to teachers in the sense that they would be less vulnerable to changes in the style and personality of their employer. In short, teachers may simply prefer for a variety of individual reasons to work in larger schools. And this may be a far more powerful explanation than a school board's reluctance to grant teachers tenure.

There may also be professional norms in operations that dictate a mobility pattern in which one moves from the entry level position in the small rural school up the ladder to the larger school. There is reason to suppose that in a state like Nebraska, small rural school districts may serve as a training ground for new teachers. Because these schools experience chronic teacher shortages, beginning teachers enter such schools intending to spend only a few years gaining experience. Once lines have been added to the resumes, teachers search for higher paying jobs nearer to the city lights.

Conclusion

The real causes of rural teacher transiency are likely to be a mix of factors, some of which are identified above. As in all studies which look at populations in opposition to individual entities, this one identifies general indicators. Each school board and school will be locally unique so the above may become irrelevant to local conditions.

For states with large populations of small rural schools, it is most important to try to better understand rural teacher mobility patterns prior to setting in place state policy that will impact on those patterns. This is particularly true as states move to consolidate districts. If these consolidation efforts are more aimed at re-drawing boundaries and less at closing schools then the relatedness of rural teacher transiency to state policy is less direct. However, because many state consolidation actions will be likely to have a direct impact on school governance, i.e. local school boards, or on the dynamics of teacher career patterns, we need to know more about the relationship of rural boards and teachers.

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A Powerful Tool

Merit Pay—A Formula To Make It Work in Education

For some educators outstanding teaching is unavoidable and for others it's unattainable, says this writer, who also believes that the proper incentive and recognition can increase teacher effectiveness across the board.

BY FRANK J. BARONE

PROGRESSIVE and successful companies reward their employees for exemplary performance. Why, then, can't the same practice of rewarding quality performance be applied to public education?

The answer is that it can. But only if certain factors are considered and certain obstacles are overcome. What follows, then, is a formula I feel may make merit pay viable in the public school setting.

Before we can look seriously at this or any other merit pay scheme, the plan must answer in the affirmative three basic questions:

1. Is the merit pay formula acceptable to both management and labor?
2. Can merit pay be administered in an unbiased and objective manner?
3. Will merit pay improve teacher performance and increase learning?

The answer to the first question lies in the resolution of the remaining two issues. However, one thing is clear. The board of education of a district in which merit pay is being considered must realize at the onset that the merit pay scheme will result in costs above and beyond the established pay scale. Merit pay should not replace the existing pay structure that gives teachers graduated increments for years of service and graduate study. It should, instead, reward good teachers above and beyond the pay structure. No teachers' bargaining unit can accept a merit pay plan that holds a teacher's pay hostage to a guarantee of outstanding work performance.

The Plan

When a teacher becomes eligible for a merit pay increase he or she is rewarded by jumping one longevity step on the teachers' salary schedule.

For example, Teachers A and B are both currently on step 9 of the salary

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scale. Both also have 30 graduate hours beyond their BA. Both, therefore, currently earn $20,499. Next year, Teacher A will move automatically to Step 10 of the salary schedule. His salary thus will increase to $22,021. However, Teacher B is eligible for a merit pay increase. She, therefore, will move from Step 9 of the salary scale to Step 11. She moved one step automatically, as did Teacher A, but also one additional step because of merit. Her salary, therefore, will be $22,923.

No teachers' bargaining unit can accept a merit pay plan that holds a teacher's pay hostage to a guarantee of outstanding work performance.

This process of jumping steps can be continued throughout the salary schedule. And, though districts may set caps on pay increments based upon years of service and graduate credit, the merit pay increments would be unlimited, with set amounts awarded once a deserving individual has reached the top of the salary schedule.

In this way, it is possible for exemplary teachers to reach the upper end of the pay structure at a faster rate than less successful teachers. Bargaining units would continue to negotiate salary schedules with school districts without regard for merit pay, thus ensuring that exemplary teaching will not be rewarded at the expense of the average teacher.

A district should limit merit pay to one step per year. Further, merit should not be awarded in mid year, but rather at the end of a school year to take effect the following year. This will ensure that merit is based on a teacher's long term success (a full academic year) and not on any short term or passing circumstance. Also, the prospect of a salary increase the following year may give a meritorious teacher the incentive to remain with the school district and/or remain in teaching.

Further, if merit increases given by one school district were considered valid for transfer by other districts the increases would be more valuable to the recipient. However, nontransferability of merit pay would not necessarily weaken the program. Rather, it may aid school districts in retaining highly able teachers.

It is my belief that a merit pay scheme that in no way dilutes the existing pay structure of a school district would be acceptable to teachers if in addition, the criteria used to award merit pay were as unbiased and objective as possible.

Can merit pay be administered in an unbiased and objective manner?

We must assume that any system for administering merit pay that can be abused or misused will be. No plan will be foolproof. Even in industry, where merit pay has proved to be an effective incentive, there are abuses. Promotions are not always based upon ability or service, but sometimes on who you know or in being "in the right place at the right time."

In spite of this, however, merit pay has worked in private industry and more often than not, those deserving of promotion are rewarded even if those not deserving are also sometimes rewarded. Further, this will not necessarily weaken the incentive. A raise is still a raise, and not every employee can utilize "being in the know" as a means for promotion

Most employees will continue to work for merit promotion in spite of occasional abuses of the system.

Both management and labor must accept that any merit pay scheme can be subject to misuse. They must, therefore, work toward developing a plan that minimizes the opportunities for abuse. This author recommends a merit pay scheme that is based on an evaluation tool which contains a set of specific, measurable criteria developed mutually by the board of education and the teachers' association.

It is important that the evaluation form be as concise and objective as possible (see chart). At the end of each academic year every teacher must be evaluated for merit. Every instructor should be evaluated by more than one individual, and each evaluator should complete the form without consultation with the other evaluator(s). Self-evaluation should also be included in the process.

Scoring the Merit Pay Form

The highest score an instructor can receive on any one evaluation is 30 points (10 criteria x 3 points each for an outstanding grade). If the evaluation team consists of four individuals (the principal, assistant principal, department chairman, and the self-evaluator), the highest possible score would be 120 points.

In many instances the evaluation team may consist of only the principal and the self-evaluator. It is my opinion that no matter the number of evaluators (up to four) the value of the self-evaluation be a constant 25 percent of the total. The following scale demonstrates the self-evaluator's scoring.

Using this scale, the self-evaluator's score remains 25 percent of the total score. All other evaluators on the team score consistently at 1 point for effective, 2 points for most effective, and 3 points for outstanding.

	Effective	Most Effective	Outstanding
With 3 other evaluators	1 pt	2 pts	3pts
With 2 other evaluators	3/4 pt	1 1/2 pts	2 1/4 pts
With 1 other evaluator	1/4 pt	1/2 pt	3/4 pt

Each labor-management team should determine how many people should be on the evaluation team and what total score merits a pay increase. It is recommended, however, that meritorious performance rate at least 24 points.

The following rating scale illustrates scores based upon the number of evaluators:

With a total of Increase	Minimum Possible Rating	Maximum Possible Rating	Rating Deserving of Merit
2 evaluators	12.4	37.5	30 or more
3 evaluators	27.5	82.5	66 or more

Conclusion

Finally, will merit pay—however it is defined by the school district—improve teacher performance and increase learning?

I believe that it will. The notion of linking quality performance and salary is not a new one, nor does it apply only to nonprofessional or blue collar workers. Aren't the most effective lawyers, doctors, architects, engineers, and so on usually also the highest paid?

This author believes it's time to recognize that financial incentives are powerful tools that can be used to improve, or at least recognize, teacher performance. Remember, most schools cannot promote exceptional teachers. It may not even be a good idea to do so. We want to keep good teachers in teaching. We must, therefore, provide financial incentives as well as recognition.

Better Use of Teacher Time

Teachers should be free to utilize their professional skills instead of being assigned to supervisory duties, according to Frank Sesko, assistant principal at Hoffman Estates (Ill.) High School.

In Township High School District 211 in Illinois, community members are hired to take care of some of the hall and cafeteria supervisory duties, while teachers are assigned to tutor, work on special projects for the gifted, and work with students in in-school suspension centers.

Each of the district's five schools employs seven to eight paraprofessional supervisors, Sesko explains. They are trained to deal with students in the halls and cafeterias. As a result, teachers are available to students during lunch periods.

"The paraprofessional work force may be composed of adults of varying ages," Sesko says. "While it might be more expedient to find parents who would enjoy such employment on a full or part-time basis, senior citizens should not be ruled out.

"The increased educational demands placed on high schools can be handled successfully so long as they are approached with an open mind and so long as we are not afraid to explore alternatives to the old tried and true methods. The alternatives are there; it's up to us to use them."

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES AND RESOURCES
Attracting and Retaining Quality Teachers

"Preparing Rural Teachers in Canada," The Rural Educator, Vol. 9, No. 1, Fall 1987.

"Recruiting and Retaining the Best," The School Administrator, February 1988.

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"Rural Education in the Northeast United States," $5.00 plus $2.50 postage and handling from The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810, 1987.

"Incentives That Enhance the Teaching Profession: Background Paper," $8.00 from the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 295 Emroy Avenue, Elmhurst, IL 60126.

"Teacher Quality: An Issue Brief," $4.50 plus $2.50 postage and handling from The Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands, 290 South Main Street, Andover, MA 01810.

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"Ideas That Work," Staff Development in Small and Rural School Districts, American Association of School Administrators, 1983. (Reprint)
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"Cooperative Revolution Catches Fire," The School Administrator, January 1988. (Reprint)
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B. ADDITIONAL REFERENCES AND RESOURCES

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by David P. Crandall et al.

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Strategic Planning Issues That Bear on the Success of School Improvement Efforts[2]

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Although some researchers argue that educational reform efforts should focus upon individual schools,[3] there are reasons for skepticism about a school's capacity for change. Specifically, they operate in a context of confused priorities, buffeted by political forces and community crosscurrents. Their curricula and dominant methods of presentation are depressingly similar and have changed little for more than a century.[4] They are populated by students of increasing diversity and seemingly decreasing motivation, as well as by a teaching staff that, when replenished, draws its often poorly trained recruits from the lowest quartile of the undergraduate ranks.

Attempts at improvement are too often aborted, falling victim to administrative turnover, reassignment of trained teachers, or shifting priorities responding to the siren call of tomorrow's hot topic. Parents

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and other taxpayers collide with school administrators, school board members, local officials, community agency staff, state and federal agency personnel, university faculty members, and independent school improvement specialists. Positioned at the confluence of these potentially competing interests, the individual school can perhaps be excused if it seems to adopt a defensive posture.

Meanwhile, however, program developers have expanded the reservoir of innovations with a demonstrated capacity for meeting student needs, and social scientists and school improvement specialists have been steadily learning both about the ingredients of implementable policies and practices and about the kind of leadership and support that leads to serious, sustained educational change. For decades, researchers have studied the actors and factors that influence the results of school improvement efforts. Recently, they have incorporated separate streams of research into multivariate frameworks and confirmed the resulting conceptions empirically in large-scale, national, multimethod studies.[5]

This article presents findings from these studies that provide guidance to policymakers, administrators, and school improvement specialists who—whether they were aware they are doing so, or whether they are aware of any alternatives—take positions on a range of issues related to school improvement. The first set of issues discussed below deals with deciding upon the nature of the desired changes; the second set deals with planning how to proceed.

ISSUES RELATED TO DECIDING UPON THE NATURE OF THE DESIRED CHANGES

Focusing on the nature of the desired change, research can be divided as it pertains to the following dilemmas: whether to opt for a pedagogic or an organizational focus; whether to work toward making modest or major changes; whether to develop innovations internally or import those developed elsewhere; whether to rely upon innovations developed by teachers or those developed by nonteachers; and whether to insist that innovations be replicated faithfully or allow implementers to adapt them.

A Pedagogic Versus an Organizational Focus

Improvement activities with a pedagogic focus emphasize what happens in the classroom, either in content, classroom organization, or instructional patterns; those with an organizational focus try to alter schoolwide variables such as school climate or decision-making processes. Which type provides the most meaningful school improvement? Much of the large-scale research on the effectiveness of *classroom-focused* change efforts has studied the functioning of the federally funded National Diffusion Network (NDN). Through state facilitator offices located in each of the 50 states, the NDN makes available to school districts a set of "validated" programs and practices (i.e., where "validated" means that adequate impact evaluation data exist). If schools express interest in adopting one of these practices, training is usually partially supported by NDN funds that go directly to the original developer.

The NDN has been in existence since 1974 and has been studied at a national level by two different research groups,[6] one of which focused not only upon program characteristics associated with successful school improvement outcomes, but also on how the program interacted with local change management strategies.[7] These studies provide consistent conclusions about design and management factors that account for the spread and implementation of pedagogically focused practices. Because these conclusions are also consistent with other studies of the adoption and implementation of such practices,[8] they have been summarized below and serve as an advanced organizer for much of the remainder of this article.

> *Access to alternative practices for adoption or development must be systematically provided to promote informed, local choice which fosters greater commitment. Face-to-face contact facilitates the adoption of disseminated practices to a far greater extent than the mere provision of information. Adequate materials and procedural guidelines, coupled with responsive, in-person assistance during later implementation, are imperative for maximum success. The commitment of teachers and administrators can be engaged as fully (and much more rapidly) by involvement in actual implementation activities as by extended participatory planning and make-ready activities. . . . Given these favorable conditions, the use of both validated practices (in the case of dissemination) and carefully designed practices (in the case of local development) can yield comparable outcomes.*[9]

Less attention has been given to *organizationally focused* school improvement efforts, and the results of experiments in the 1970s were not encouraging.[10] For example, the federally funded Documentation and Technical Assistance Program failed to generate successful organizational changes in participating schools,[11] and the results of the

Experimental Schools Program, which also emphasized comprehensive organizational change, were generally meager.[12] One review of organization development (OD) in schools[13] suggests that social scientists are clearer about why OD does not work than why and when it does work. Their finding that few studies looked at the impact of OD on students echoes the frustration educators experience with organizationally focused approaches that never seem to make a clear enough connection to the classroom.

The extent of the connection between changes in one variable and changes in other variables is at the heart of an ongoing debate[14] regarding whether schools more closely resemble conventional bureaucracies or "loosely-coupled systems" (the latter implying that each school and classroom operates somewhat independently, with low accountability). Although these two descriptions are typically assumed to be a matter of competing theoretical perspectives, the difference in views are partly due to the *activities that are being examined* and partly due to *real differences* among schools and school systems.

Why does it matter which view is correct? If schools are so loosely coupled that changes in one variable have virtually no noticeable impact upon other variables, then it would follow that changing organizational variables will have minimal impact upon student achievement. However, findings from the "effective schools" research[15] seem to suggest that certain school characteristics—such as the principal's role as instructional leader and the nature of the school culture—correlate positively with student achievement.

This line of research is growing rapidly. As of 1985, Miles and Kaufman[16] had located roughly 50 research-based effective school programs that not only met their criteria, but also were documented thoroughly enough to be transferable to other districts or schools. Yet, the "effective schools movement" is only about five years old, the identified effective school characteristics are correlates rather than demonstrated causes of effectiveness, and the research base relating to *managing* effective schools change efforts is substantially softer than that for managing efforts that are solely pedagogically based.[17] In short, there is much to learn regarding how to change mediocre schools into more effective ones. This conclusion is especially true for high schools[18] where, unfortunately, the highest levels of poor organizational climate and coordination tend to be found. The "how to do it" problem is not solved by searching the literature on similar efforts in different settings. Most OD specialists who write about nonschool settings work only with top executives; the internal staff who carry out OD inside companies write about neither *what* they do nor *how* they do it.

But the distinction between pedagogic and organizational innovations is somewhat artificial. Classrooms and teachers are located in schools, and even though they may be loosely linked, they are not totally decoupled. For example preexisting levels of staff-administrator conflict can derail otherwise sound projects.[19] Similarly, organizational interventions that attempt to create linkages may facilitate pedagogic innovations.[20] And there is abundant evidence, to be discussed in more detail later, that school-based administrators as well as district office staff play a central role in determining the success or failure of pedagogic change efforts.[21]

Based upon the research, the following conclusions seem warranted. First, decision makers contemplating school improvement efforts should include pedagogically focused components, unless no claims will be made about ultimately affecting student performance (as when word processing equipment is introduced into administrative offices). Next, most schools do not need to be as loosely coupled as they are.[22] Improvement efforts that increase the involvement in the instructional program of elementary school principals and secondary school department chairs are more likely to have a greater impact on student outcomes than efforts that focus solely upon improving the classroom performance of teachers. Finally, those carrying out dual-focused efforts should devote considerable attention to clarifying and strengthening the potential links between the organizational and pedagogical components.

Modest Versus Major Changes

According to several large educational studies,[23] the larger the scope and personal "demandingness" of a change—a term Matthew Miles coined to refer to the extent to which an innovation requires additional people, new organizational arrangements, and new behaviors—the greater the chance for success. At first glance, the essential finding appears to be in conflict with earlier findings outside the field of education[24] that the more complex the innovation, the less likely it will be adopted. But these earlier studies are of *adoption*—that is, of the user's *decision* to use—as opposed to implementation of the change *after* an adoption decision has been made. Apparent complexity may initially deter a potential adopter who has to master the innovation alone.

Indeed, most people would opt for a bandage over surgery if they could convince themselves that the less-hassling bandage was a sufficient remedy.

A more meaningful way of framing these findings is that the greater the teacher effort and energy expended in implementing a new practice, the greater the potential outcome. This version is consistent with the finding by Louis et al.[25] of a linear relationship between teachers' perceptions of the *difficulty* of making the change and the amount of personal and organizational change.

Loucks et al.[26] devised a procedure for creating a "practice profile" that could be used to assess the extent to which teachers were required to change (it should be noted that a given innovation may represent a large change for one teacher but only a small change for the teacher next door). This methodological breakthrough allowed them to control for the demandingness of change across both teachers and innovations when analyzing the relationships between predictor variables and implementation outcome variables. Using this measurement method, Huberman and Miles[27] studied the implementation of new practices in twelve schools in depth. Agreeing with the conclusions of the previously cited educational studies, they found that the more teachers attempted, the more they attained.

Whereas the findings reported above refer to the size/complexity of the innovation from the perspective of the individual teacher, there are also some intriguing findings dealing with innovation size/complexity from the school's perspective. First, it is not uncommon for schools to attempt to implement innovations that are beyond their ability to carry out given their existing structures, resources, and internal climates;[28] Huberman and Miles[29] refer to this phenomenon as "overreaching." Second, the research on institutionalization indicates that small innovations are typically not institutionalized because they are not perceived to be worth the effort, and the more massive the innovation, the more likely it is that there will be distortion and only partial institutionalization.[30] These findings can be summarized with the generalization that from an organizational perspective, the relationship between the innovation size/complexity and success appears to be curvilinear. In essence, the greatest success is likely to occur when the size of the change is large enough to require noticeable, sustained effort, but not so massive that typical users find it necessary to adopt a coping strategy that seriously distorts the change. When both sets of findings dealing with innovation size are taken together, enough appears to be known to conclude that if extensive effort is going to be put forward, it should be channeled toward making changes that are large enough to justify the human and financial costs of such efforts.

Internal Development Versus Importing Innovations Developed Elsewhere

Underlying both the teacher-center movement[31] and recommendations for highly school-focused and school-developed in-service activities[32] are two assumptions: that innovations developed within the district will work better than those coming from outside, and that innovations developed by teachers work better than those developed by nonteachers. The first of these assumptions will be discussed in this section, the second in the next section.

The argument has been advanced that locally developed innovations work best because they are more likely both to fit the local context and to elicit commitment on the part of leaders and implementers.[33] Yet, in two different studies,[34] little evidence was found to suggest that teachers considered an innovation's birthplace to be particularly relevant. This was corroborated in a third study,[35] which found that other characteristics of the innovation and the planning and implementation process, such as the content of the innovation and the amount and types of outside assistance, are more important than the source of the innovation. Findings from a set of detailed case analyses[36] indicated that both externally and locally developed innovations can succeed. Huberman and Crandall have concluded that internality/externality is not a key variable.[37]

These inconsistent findings may be due to the way that "local" is defined. While people located outside the district tend to define anything generated from within as local, most teachers view innovations brought in from the district office and those imported from across the country as equally foreign. In larger districts, teachers may not even know staff from other schools or the district office well enough to make any assumptions about their competence or understanding of classroom realities. The essential question for teachers is not who created the program, but whether it measures up against the tests of reality and utility—that is, whether it makes sense to them, and whether will it help them and their students.[38]

Finally, Louis et al.[39] found that one of the major predictors of use of information given to educators from outside sources was the extent to which the ideas were discussed locally. These authors concluded that discussion itself builds commitment, in part because it represents an investment of group effort in understanding and applying the new ideas, and in part because the ideas are actually reformulated during the process. To the extent that *outside* ideas become *inside* ideas through these processes, the distinction becomes irrelevant. In short, both inside and outside programs can be implemented effectively.

Development by Teachers Versus Nonteachers

To consider development by local teachers as a viable option, it seems sensible to take into account what is known about the teachers' working environment. This environment and the teachers who teach there have been thoroughly described.[40] Here are aspects of what Huberman[41] calls "classroom press" that exert major influence on teachers:

- *The press for immediacy and concreteness*: Teachers engage in a huge number of interchanges—an estimated 200,000 per year. Most of these are spontaneous and require action.
- *The press for multidimensionality and simultaneity*: Teachers are confronted with the need to carry on a range of operations simultaneously, including providing materials, presenting content, eliciting responses, assessing progress, attending to emotional needs, and controlling behavior.
- *The press for adapting to ever-changing conditions*: Schools are reactive partly because they must deal with unstable input. Individual and group behaviors change from year to year, and outcomes cannot be tied decisively to particular treatments. Techniques that work with one student fail with the next, or may work one day but not the next.
- *The press for personal involvement with students*: Teachers discover that they need to develop and maintain personal relationships, that for most children and adolescents, meaningful interaction is a precursor to academic learning.

This "classroom press" has several effects on teachers that bear on the question at hand:

- *Teachers focus on the short term*: They place a heavy emphasis on "having a successful day."[42]
- *Teachers are isolated from adults*: The opportunity to interact meaningfully with colleagues is limited by teachers' schedules and responsibilities, and also by the norms that prevail in most teachers' lounges, which function as places for tension release.

- *Teachers run out of energy by the end of the school day*: At the end of the week, they are tired; at the end of the year, they are exhausted.
- *Teachers rarely engage in sustained reflection about teaching*: Given all the above characteristics, teachers tend to function intuitively.[43] Since they neither are taught how to reflect, nor are rewarded for doing so, they rarely spend time reasoning about how they carry out their jobs.

Some implications of the above generalizations are illustrated in a study of teacher development in a school that, because of its highly educated and youthful staff, appeared to provide an especially promising context. Yet, during development, teachers consistently excluded all sources of knowledge beyond their own classroom experience.[44] While relying upon experiential knowledge is useful for day-to-day coping, it is not well suited for generating a complete curriculum. In the case just cited, the development effort petered out because the teachers could not get beyond inconclusive discussions. In an assessment of a multisite federally funded local development effort, Miles[45] described this same scenario, including the demoralization that accompanies the failure to "produce."

Other case studies have also documented problems with local teacher development, including fatigue and inability to produce "usable" programs without outside assistance.[46] Furthermore, because of the restricted nature of school staff communication patterns, it does not necessarily follow that good ideas developed by a small group of teachers will spread throughout the school.[47]

None of the above implies that teachers can never develop successful change programs; in fact, many exemplary innovations in the NDN pool were developed by teachers. However, the data imply that the professional and working conditions of teaching are such that it should not be assumed that involving teachers in developing innovations will invariably lead to better programs. Taken together, the research suggests that for such involvement to lead to success, the following conditions should be in place. Teachers should be provided with additional resources, primarily release time during the regular school day. The teachers to be involved should be self-selected and highly motivated. The teachers to be involved should have exhibited the ability to integrate theory and experience. Teachers should have access to outside "experts"—either from within the district or outside—who can help them with the development process. The school or district should not be in a hurry for change; local teacher development is a time-consuming process that if rushed is likely to fail.

To summarize the above discussion, since the requisite conditions for ensuring success are rarely present, teacher involvement in innovation development should be viewed cautiously; if it is chosen, it should be adequately supported. Yet, part of the argument for selecting change programs that have been designed by teachers is unrelated to whether the development takes place internally or externally. This line of reasoning suggests that the crucial variable is whether programs are implementable and attractive to teachers. A recent study identified some key dimensions of innovations and materials that affect their implementability and attractiveness:[48]

- *Craft legitimization*: Is there evidence of reality testing in the construction of the materials, for example, were practitioners involved as consultants or developers, and was the product field-tested?
- *Compatibility*: Is the social context of prospective users, particularly in regard to their opportunities and incentives for action, incorporated into the innovation or materials?
- *Accessibility*: Is the innovation designed to evoke the interest of and relate to the conceptual framework of a person who does not already share the same assumptions or frame of reference?[49]
- *Observability/Imagery:* Is there opportunity for the prospective user to assess the knowledge in light of his or her own reality (such as vivid descriptions of the ideas or innovations at work)?
- *Adaptability:* Do the innovation and materials encourage local adaptation, and were they designed for local adaptation?
- *Inspiration:* Does the innovation have a strong inspirational thrust? Are idealistic-altruistic values an important component of the message?

One can conclude from this study that regardless of who develops them, programs and materials should be carefully assessed not only for their demonstrated ability to achieve educational goals, but also for the degree to which they map onto known characteristics of "usable" knowledge.

Replication Versus Adaptation

With respect to the wisdom of providing latitude for adopters to adapt innovations to their contexts or personal styles, several national studies appear to have reached opposite conclusions. Berman and McLaughlin[50] found that in order for an innovation to be implemented successfully, "mutual adaptation" had to occur, that is, both the users and the innovation were changed during the process. In contrast, both Emrick and Peterson[51] and Crandall et al.[52] found that users *could* successfully implement innovations faithfully (i.e., without the innovation undergoing adaptation), while Louis et al.[53] found that mutual adaptation was negatively associated with personal and organizational change.

The apparent contradiction can be resolved by looking at both the clarity of the innovation and the extent to which the innovation has been field-tested and debugged. Berman and McLauglin were studying diffuse and virgin innovations while Emrick and Peterson were studying focused and debugged innovations.

In line with the above distinction, Huberman and Miles[54] found that when innovations were well designed (both focused and debugged) *and* technically challenging, users who were permitted to make adaptations were unlikely to achieve the effects that had been achieved by the developers. Rather, they frequently used the latitude to omit the parts that were not only technically challenging, but also the key to success.[55] On the other hand, when administrators both insisted that teachers faithfully implement well-designed and technically challenging innovations *and* provided the requisite support, the implementation outcomes were positive. However, these investigators also found that special attention and support are required for second-round teachers (who typically do not receive training from the original developer) to achieve faithful implementation.

Exactly which aspects of a change program need to be implemented faithfully? To answer this question, it is useful to distinguish among three entities:

- *Core components*—elements of the change that its developers believe are required if the desired results are to be obtained,[56]
- *Related components*—other changes that either enhance the operation of core changes or increase the likelihood of achieving desired goals;[57] and
- *Implementation requirements*—necessary resources, such as user knowledge and skills, or materials and equipment, that may be required to implement the change.[58]

The task of gaining clarity with respect to which aspect of the change program belongs in each of these three categories is much more difficult than one would intuitively expect. In the case of *core changes*, even the initial developers of innovations experience difficulty in determining which components of their programs are critical, and which are optional or peripheral. On the other hand, if core components are not accurately identified, later implementation decisions and adjustments may inadvertantly eliminate important key elements. Identifying core components of the program is also important because it may help to evaluate the "fit" between an innovation and the school more accurately, and to develop a more cognitive understanding of the nature and scope of the intended change. These factors have been found to be critical to the successful implementation of pedagogically based changes.[59]

Innovations may also be analyzed to determine whether they imply any *related changes.* Tichy[60] argued that organizations, including schools, can be conceptualized as being composed of interrelated strands: the *technical* system, the *political* system, and the *cultural* system. Educational problems can be classified into each of these three categories. For example, problems of pedagogy and curriculum are primarily technical because they address the school's core structures and activities; the problem of adjudicating between the collective bargaining agreement and the demands of implementing a new program is primarily political; and the problem of motivating a "burned out" staff is primarily cultural. Actually, few school problems fit neatly into a single category. Thus, changing the curriculum will typically raise a host of related political and cultural problems that must be dealt with if implementation is to move forward.[61] In schools, those responsible for planning change should (1) ask themselves what related changes in other subsystems are implied by the planned technical changé, and (2) strategically plan the change program to align the system's téchnical, political, and cultural strands.

Finally, accurate assessment of *implementation requirements* is critical. Many innovations fail because they are too ambitious to maintain within regular school budgets.[62] Devoting financial resources to early planning of the implementation process is associated with successful implementation outcomes,[63] largely because it helps to ensure that the program will not only meet school needs, but also "fit" the available resources.

Among the recommendations that can be based upon these findings are three. First, core components of any improvement programs should be clearly identified in advance. No changes should be made in those programs without careful analysis of the effects of the change on goal achievement. Second, strategic, organizationwide planning should be carried out to identify any additional changes that need to be made in order to support the implementation of classroom-focused changes. Third, early planning should explicitly identify both short- and long-term resources that will be needed to maintain the change program.

ISSUES RELATED TO DEVELOPING A SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT PLAN

Focusing on planning how to proceed, research can be divided as it pertains to the following: the role of teachers in the planning process; the placement of the implementation effort in the organization chart; the scope of its initial implementation; the selection of key personnel; the methods of encouraging productive engagement; the support necessary to meet participant needs; and the location of the effort within a long-range plan. Again and again, decision makers will encounter a dilemma: should decision makers (1) opt for a relatively easy early phase with the consequence being a more difficult later phase, or (2) accept the burden of a relatively difficult early phase in order to enjoy a relatively easy later phase? This is similar to, but different from, the dilemma discussed earlier associated with issues of replication versus adaptation. That dilemma could have been paraphrased as follows: should decision makers (1) opt for a relatively easy early phase with a possible consequence being the elimination of one or more innovation components that are critical to the innovation's producing the desired results, or (2) accept the burden of taking heat from and providing support to frustrated potential users who are struggling to acquire difficult-to-master concepts and skills, in order to increase the likelihood that desired results are obtained.

The Role of Teachers in the Planning Process

Previously, the wisdom of involving teachers in innovation *development* was discussed; in this section, the issue is the extent to which administrators should make efforts to engage teachers actively in *planning* school improvement efforts. The research relating *participation* in the planning process to *satisfaction* suggests the following concerning teacher satisfaction: sometimes teacher satisfaction is positively correlated with the degree of participation and sometimes with the degree of congruence between desired and actual participation.[64]

Teacher satisfaction depends upon the content (Mohrman et al.[65] found a small positive relationship between extent of participation and satisfaction when the decisions to be made dealt with instructional methods and materials, or with instructional and discipline policy). Teacher satisfaction may relate to the phase of planning (in particular, Conway[66] speculates that teachers may obtain greater satisfaction from being involved during problem identification than from being brought in at later phases). Teacher satisfaction stems less from participatory planning than either from trusting that administrators will make appropriate decisions,[67] or from mastering well-designed, technically challenging innovations and witnessing them produce their intended effects.[68] Finally, teacher satisfaction depends upon the adequacy of the time available to engage in planning.[69]

With respect to the relationship between participatory planning and *commitment*, previous researchers have assumed that the early involvement of teachers in school improvement efforts created a level of commitment that would sustain teachers as they encountered implementation problems. For example, Goodlad's problem-solving and decision-making process has been advocated[70] as has the involvement of teachers in the development or modification of new strategies and materials.[71] However, findings from empirical tests of this assumption suggest that often such commitment is not a *cause* of the outcomes, but rather an *effect*.[72] Specifically, the commitment of teachers increases as they simultaneously see themselves master the practice and perceive that their students are doing better.

Turning to the impact of participation on implementation outcomes, Louis et al.[73] found a relationship between broad teacher participation and successful change, but only at the point of affirming the choice of innovations. Use of a small team in identifying needs, defining problems, or developing a plan did *not* inhibit successful change. However, while involving teachers in discussions about adapting well-designed innovations helps to preserve harmonious relationships between teachers and administrators, a potentially undesirable result may be to rob the innovation of its punch and effectiveness.[74]

When taken together, the accumulated research suggests the following guidelines regarding involving teachers in the *planning* of school improvement efforts: when a major school improvement initiative is being contemplated, teachers should be notified and given an opportunity to participate in the problem identification phase. If a reasonable effort to coax reluctant teachers to participate in planning yields no takers, administrators should complete this phase on their own or after one-to-one consultation with teachers whose advice they have come to trust. Cultural norms should be taken into account. If either past practice or the language of a collective bargaining agreement calls for a certain level of participation, then administrators should act in accordance with these norms. After the problem has been identified, administrators should notify teachers and seek their comments and suggestions. From then on, administrators should inform them of developments, notify them that their ideas are welcome, and include them on an "as interested" basis. When the number of acceptable approaches has been narrowed to a few, administrators should provide teachers with the opportunity and information to select one, or ratify a selection made by a task force of their peers. When a plan is almost in final form, administrators should provide teachers with an opportunity to critique and modify it. Alternatively, a decision to mandate that a particular innovation be adopted can be coupled with the involvement of teachers in the planning of its implementation. Under most circumstances, administrators should not expect teachers to design major change programs without substantial support and leadership, such as assistance from a highly motivated and creative peer, or from an external expert who is genuinely interested in collaborative development.

The Implementation Effort's Placement in the Organization Chart

Should the improvement effort be housed (1) in a niche that will give it special status and high visibility or (2) within the unit that most clearly approximates its area of activity? According to both theorists[75] and researchers,[76] the advantages of giving it a special niche are that such placement: demonstrates the district or school's commitment to its success; protects it against early dilution; and allows project staff to tinker and experiment, free from some of the routines and red tape that encumber established units.

In contrast, the advantages of locating it in the unit that is its most probable final destination are that such placement: provides opportunities for support, expertise, knowledge, and resources that can enhance its capabilities; provides opportunities for the project to contribute to the unit's related ongoing activities; promotes the kinds of interpersonal networking that are likely to facilitate integration; and increases the likelihood that, if successful, its major elements will be both continued and spread to others.

Research findings suggest the need to do more than merely weigh the advantages of one option against those of the other. Specifically, implementation success is also affected by political pressures for and against launching the improvement effort, by the reputation and competence of the unit that is the innovation's most likely destination, and the receptivity to the innovation of key personnel in said unit, especially its head.

The Scope of Initial Implementation

Decision makers face a dilemma: while starting small is likely to be easier in the short run, much of the difficulty that starting small avoids is merely postponed. One form of this dilemma, which assumes that the entire innovation will be implemented at the outset, asks whether decision makers should start out by implementing the innovation on a small scale or by attempting to implement the change throughout the building or system. To an extent, this choice depends upon whether the initial implementation is partly a developmental effort or the first stage of an effort to implement a fully debugged innovation. If the innovation has not yet been fully developed, then the full implementation strategy may trigger preventable schoolwide or districtwide problems. But if the innovation has already been debugged, the choice is whether to spread it through a small demonstration version that others can observe and voluntarily emulate *or* through a buildingwide or districtwide mandate. Bearing on this choice is the rather discouraging accumulated experience of would-be disseminators with educational "lighthouse" or demonstration programs; few potential adopters emulate such programs on their own initiative.[77] Even though these lighthouse programs were set up to stimulate adoption by educators outside of the demonstration districts, there is little basis for believing that within-district demonstration strategies fare any better unless such efforts are supported by administrative encouragement or pressure.

The above discussion assumed that the full innovation was being implemented at the outset. Another form of the scope-of-initial-implementation dilemma challenges this assumption; specifically, it asks whether a large effort should be implemented all at once or in phases, only a few components at a time. Addressing the dilemma in this second form involves answering some questions—both familiar and new. Some have to do with *individual* readiness: is the magnitude of the change for individual users reasonably small? Are potential users reasonably receptive to adopting the innovation? Do the potential users possess the requisite knowledge and skills?

And others have to do with *organizational* readiness: is the change reasonably congruent with the prevailing culture? Are personnel reasonably free from the burden of either coping with crises or implementing other new projects? Are the requisite facilities, equipment, materials, and supplies available? The greater the number of "no's" to these six questions, the more sense it may make to break the innovation into coherent components. As Rosenblum and Louis[78] found in their study of "comprehensive" change efforts in rural schools, the strategy of sequentially implementing components can work. The recent Education Commission of the States (ECS) study of school reform efforts[79] provides an explanation as to why this strategy works; given that one of the major management functions for school improvement projects is "orchestrating" many moving parts, the sequential implementation strategy diminishes the magnitude of this orchestration task.

Yet, in an important sense the *all-at-once* versus *piecemeal* dilemma is a *strength* versus *endurance* dilemma; while the all-at-once strategy requires administrator-teacher relationships that are strong enough for administrators to activate, focus, and support the requisite teacher effort, the piecemeal strategy requires that administrative attention be sustained over a long time span, perhaps ten or more years.[80] Administrators contemplating the piecemeal implementation of a complex innovation need to realize that a long-term commitment is more than merely a matter of personal will; even when such a commitment is genuinely felt, it is frequently undermined by high levels of administrator and teacher turnover, as well as by constant pressure to attend to new priorities.[81]

The Selection of Key Personnel

One question related to personnel matters is whether the person responsible for providing the primary leadership for the change effort should come from the district. Among the reasons for selecting an outsider are that specialized expertise may make the program "work better" and that outsiders are likely to be freer from entangling alliances.[82] Yet, the combination of newness to the system and the stress of implementing a new program makes it difficult for outsiders to develop adequate sensitivity to the sources of support for and resistance to adopting and continuing the program. In addition, the selection of an outsider may itself cause strains, either because the newcomer fails to grasp the unwritten rules and culture, or because old-timers may operate under the assumption that both the new person and the program are likely to be transient.

A second personnel-related question involves the individuals responsible for providing the primary leadership for the change effort. Should they be chosen primarily for "front-end" (e.g., inspirational) or for "back-end" (e.g., operational and political) strengths? While an inspirational leader may succeed in mobilizing teachers to work at developing the skills necessary to achieve a successful implementation, a leader with operational and political strengths may succeed in creating formal and informal support for institutionalizing the innovation. A single individual rarely possesses both sets of skills in anything close to equal measure.[83] Few school districts are willing to appoint a series of leaders whose dominant skills match the needs and requirements of different stages of the implementation/institutionalization process. Some theorists[84] have suggested first, determining whether the greater difficulty lies in implementation or in institutionalization—for a given innovation and implementation site combination—and then selecting the individual who is most qualified to succeed at tackling whichever is considered to be the more difficult. Others have suggested forming an internal team that combines both sets of skills.[85] However, for such a team approach to work, team members must possess not only complementary strengths, but also complementary working styles.

One more related question deals with which personnel to involve in spotting problems and monitoring progress. The composition of a project monitoring or evaluation team carries the familiar baggage; if it primarily consists of project supporters, upbeat reports are likely to be met with substantial skepticism. Yet, if it includes those who are strongly idealogically opposed or who have a stake in its defeat, the project may never get a fair shot at getting off the ground. To carry out these functions, it may make sense to borrow the "quality circle" concept from industry. Those who are carrying out the new practice clearly have the greatest stake in ensuring that it works well; if they receive adequate training and support in data collection and analysis, they are likely to provide the best data for innovation management.

The Methods of Encouraging Productive Engagement

What steps can be taken to encourage participants to become involved in the improvement effort? Historically, this problem has been addressed with a combination of carrot and stick methods. With respect to incentives, Greenwood et al. found that tangible *extrinsic* incentives such as money "did little or nothing to secure good project implementation."[86] This is consistent with Herzberg's findings related to the motivations and satisfaction of workers,[87] as well as with Spuck's findings related to the effects of extrinsic incentives on teachers.[88]

The literature consistently indicates the importance of *intrinsic* incentives on teacher performance in general[89] and on implementing innovations in particular.[90] An example of the latter is the finding by Huberman and Miles that multiple incentives operate to affect the adoption of an innovation. Most prominent in their study were intrinsic incentives associated with career plans, and with the innovation being viewed as important by "significant others" in the district. This finding is consistent with the findings of other investigators.[91]

Among other benefits that teachers have cited as particularly important are increased effectiveness (i.e., that the innovation would add resources, enrich the curriculum, or outperform existing practices) and professional growth (i.e., that implementation was seen as a vehicle for becoming a stronger, more resourceful professional).[92] Additional benefits mentioned by teachers include satisfaction, recognition, professional gain, teacher-student interaction, student achievement, and changes in student behavior and attitudes.[93]

Sometimes incentives trigger disincentives; Sieber[94] suggested that rewarding teachers for innovating sometimes leads them to experience a loss of autonomy. Because incentives can have such side effects, further research is needed to sort out which incentives have what effects under what conditions. One intriguing in-progress study is testing a theoretical model that suggests that a teacher's age, length of experience in the classroom, and "career maturity" affect the way he or she ranks incentives.[95]

So far, this review of methods of involvement has focused on "carrot" approaches to encouraging productive engagement; the discussion will now shift to consideration of a "stick" approach, namely, the use of force. Huberman and Miles[96] discovered that one strategy that led to success involved a strong leader insisting that the innovation be implemented exactly as the developer initially designed it. For the strong leader strategy to work, the leader had to provide users with support, including the requisite resources, and the innovation had to be thoroughly field-tested and debugged. The following is an example of how this "strong leader" scenario unfolds: First, teachers are given little latitude to make changes in the innovation, at least in the initial year. This creates friction between teachers and administrators, but it also means that innovations requiring major changes are put into practice in one piece. Second, teacher-administrator friction, taking the form of low teacher commitment, is eventually resolved when teachers are able to master a well-designed, technically challenging innovation while receiving sustained assistance. The assistance comes not only prior to project execution but also—and more decisively—in the course of project execution. Finally, stability of program leadership means that central office and building administrators stay with the project; they do not hand it off or turn their attention elsewhere.[97]

Parish and Aquila[98] have provided the following description of what such strong leaders do and what their actions mean to teachers:

> *How administrators announce the importance of new programs and the intensity of their later support sends a message to teachers about the political context—how important it is that a meaningful response is required. . . . Administrators send these messages by (1) making public announcements, (2) providing personnel and fiscal resources, (3) identifying an extended time period for implementation, (4) regular monitoring and checking on progress, (5) supporting craft ways of learning, and (6) providing recognition and status to those who excel with the new program.*[99]

The finding that top-down pressure for change can lead to success is supported by a study of twelve efforts to change educational organizations through the dissemination of information.[100] The authors concluded that *external mandates* are effective insofar as they reinforce personal, individual incentives to innovate.

Based upon findings from several studies, the strong leader strategy appears to require five elements: absence of debilitating conflict;[101] an effective, debugged innovation; continuity of leadership; frequent reminders that successful and faithful implementation is important; and adequate resources and support.

The Support Necessary to Meet Participant Needs

Educators who are called upon to do something new have affective, cognitive, and skill-related support needs.[102] The major need in the *affective* area is for moral support. Sometimes this need can be met merely by having others listen to the educator describe the frustrations and problems being encountered and the doubts being experienced about his or her capacity to do what is needed. Some implementers need reassurance, and most need to have their efforts appreciated.

One cluster of needs in the *cognitive* area can be subsumed under the heading "need for orientation." Educators want to know what the innovation is all about, how it works, and what it means for them in terms of time, effort, and emotional energy. Another cluster of cognitive needs has to do with clarifying what is important. What does the implementer need to know, which parts are givens, and, in the face of competing priorities, which parts can be adapted or dropped? A third cluster has to do with placing one's experience with the innovation in some perspective; for example, how does what implementers are doing fit with what their colleagues are doing in the district, state, and country?

If the change in behavior required by the innovation represents a significant departure from the individual's current behavior, the individual needs help acquiring the requisite *skills*. Descriptions of "how to do it" presented either to a large group or in writing are rarely enough. Most users achieve greater success when they are provided with opportunities to observe, to ask questions—not only prior to implementation, but also throughout the implementation process—and also to practice and receive feedback on key skills, either on the job or, if adequate mutual trust has been developed, in role-playing sessions with peers. Finally, teachers or administrators with coordination or oversight responsibilities for the school or district's implementation efforts may need help in increasing their logistical and management skills.

Findings by Hall et al.[103] provide useful insights regarding how the concerns, knowledge, and skills of innovation users develop during various stages of the adoption/implementation process. Loucks-Horsley and Hergert[104] use these findings to discuss the appropriateness of various research-validated strategies at each stage. But according to

Parish and Aquila,[105] the kind of support that is typically provided consists solely of: short workshops to learn the key innovation's skills and technologies; orientation to the materials and other products required for use; help from the principal or the central office only *upon request*; and an occasional visit by an administrator to "see how things are going."

Those internal personnel who are asked to provide leadership to improvement efforts are often given even less support in line with the myth that school people stand ready and able to take on a change facilitator role, that all they need is a mandate or an incentive plus a succinct description of an educational need or of a new approach to a solution. This myth is faulty first, because planning for, implementing, and institutionalizing a significant change usually consumes an inordinate amount of time. School people are already busy and rarely in a position to delegate or drop some of their responsibilities while they take on the new ones. Also few educators begin the process with the requisite motivation, confidence, knowledge, and skills; in addition to having the same support needs as users, they also have needs associated with the leadership role. Finally, this myth can be seen as faulty in that the change facilitator role itself involves time-consuming logistical, coordinating, and support-providing components. To enact it, one must develop the requisite confidence, knowledge, and skills not only to train, coordinate, and assist users, but also to orchestrate the public relations and resource allocation negotiations aspect of implementation.[106]

The accumulated research[107] suggests that in addition to providing the necessary materials and equipment, support should be provided to users and those responsible for providing leadership to the improvement effort in three forms: first, good solid training, demonstration, and *ongoing* coaching; second, promotion of cooperation and collegiality through user networks; and third, communication of a realistic time frame along with expectations that it will be used to identify and solve the problems that arise.

Recent studies have identified ways that various role occupants provide support. For example, *teachers* are the best source of enthusiasm, value congruence, and credibility. As developers or as dynamic and articulate users, teachers have provided support as initial presenter/demonstrators, as trainers, and as sources of "here's how we did it."[108]

Cox[109] found that *principals* who were active in successful improvement efforts ensured that every teacher was aware both that successful implementation was a top priority and that *all* the components of the practice were to be implemented. In addition, they worked to establish a climate conducive to ongoing problem solving, and provided teachers with a realistic time frame free from pressures for premature evaluation; scheduling assistance to enable them to actually *use* the practice; any necessary equipment and materials; easy access to individuals thoroughly familiar with the innovation; and the latitude to develop their own way of meeting district expectations. Corbett et al.[110] reported that principals provide psychic rewards to teachers. Leithwood and Montgomery[111] summarized the research on these and other principal behaviors that consistently exert beneficial influence upon the classroom and schoolwide factors correlated with student learning.

Bauchner et al.[112] found that "*local facilitators*"—usually from the school district's central office—contributed more to the success of school improvement efforts than any other role group. Their contributions included developing a clear understanding of student needs in each district school, locating and helping to select appropriate innovations, arranging district or other funding, working with external consultants to arrange for the requisite training, and securing endorsements of the innovation from the school board, the superintendent, principals, and teachers. Again, Corbett et al.[113] found that a major role for central office personnel consists of providing psychic rewards to principals to sustain their interests. However, Louis et al.[114] reported that central office specialists rarely communicate with teachers directly, which suggests that their role as change agent requires further development.

Among the kinds of front-end assistance that *external consultants* provide that have been found to contribute to successful implementation are alerting school people to the existence of innovations, helping them select the one that best fits their culture and needs, working with local personnel to develop commitment and arrange for training, and providing materials.[115] They also help adjust the program to the local context so that the innovation's core stays intact; sometimes this is a highly reactive, troubleshooting role.[116] In addition, external consultants develop liaison relationships with local contact persons (with local facilitators when they exist), help teachers work through such details as planning implementation schedules and attending to the specifics of actual classroom use, collect and analyze evaluation data, provide follow-up help, and assist in developing plans for institutionalization.

The relationship between external consultants and local facilitators is fascinating: external consultants provide less help to districts that have a local facilitator, but the presence of an external consultant appears to stimulate local facilitators to provide more help than they otherwise would.[117] At the same time, the degree of external consultant involvement is positively correlated with the extent of local school personnel effort.[118] During a change effort, apparently, the individuals in every category benefit from receiving support and assistance; what they give is enhanced by what they get.

The Location of the Effort Within a Long-Range Plan

On the one hand, it can be argued that any effective program should be institutionalized; if it works, plans should be made for its permanent integration, or for what Lewin[119] called "refreezing" (following "unfreezing" and "movement"). Yet, on the other hand, institutionalization makes it more difficult for schools to adapt to new realities. Furthermore, many activities are institutionalized despite the fact that they are suboptimal.[120] In such cases, institutionalization is regressive, since the school or district would be better off if it sought and adopted better solutions.

Perhaps the notion of institutionalization in professional practice is inappropriate. The Hall and Loucks formulation of levels of use[121] begins with the individual user not even interested in attending to the innovation, but ends with the user so proficient that he or she is off riding new winds, modifying the orginal innovation so that it in fact works better, or even looking for a practice that represents an improvement over the one just mastered. Ideally, educators will replace many practices that once served them well either because their mission or student population has changed, or because they can perceive better ways to realign the effective elements of their existing practice.

A more radical position on this issue is that attention should be shifted from institutionalizing innovations to fostering practitioner and institutional learning—in other words, that effort should be devoted to do what John Dewey advocated 80 years ago,[122] namely, to develop educators who actively study the teaching/learning processes. A *renewal* focus may be more functional than an *institutionalization* focus for schools because of the nature of the teaching occupation.[123] Many aspects of teaching are persistently frustrating. For example, teachers receive very limited feedback on the consequences of their interventions.

Furthermore, compared to other professions, the frequency of collegial stimulation in teaching is very low.

Periodic schoolwide planned change activities represent one way of providing "safe" stimulation and renewal. They are safe because, except in cases of massive reorganizations, they are reversible. They are stimulating to the extent that they require (1) learning new concepts and skills, and (2) collaboration among staff who otherwise would not work together. While it is clearly undesirable to implement major new practices every year—teachers would be unable to develop mastery that quickly—when teachers do develop mastery, their work becomes routine and some of them stop growing.

Some readers may wonder about the relationship between the previously cited less-than-heartening results of attempts to achieve organization-focused changes and the present discussion of building or district self-renewal. However, there is a difference between organization–focused efforts that never translate into specific implications for classroom practice and classroom-focused efforts that are launched not only to increase student gains, but also to keep the school staff vital. This is an idea that has not been systematically studied, although Louis et al.[124] noted that among the nearly 200 schools studied in the R & D Utilization program, the most potent *organizational* change materialized for those who chose to focus on *classroom*-level problems. Focusing upon a smaller number of schools but in considerably greater depth, Huberman and Miles arrived at a similar conclusion; they found that some of the pedagogical changes they studied led to educationally significant organizational changes.[125]

CONCLUSION

The approach taken in this article has been to identify key issues that must be addressed when contemplating school improvement efforts, to review current research that relates to these issues, and to draw conclusions about how strategic planning might be strengthened. An underlying premise is that the findings from the large-scale, national, multimethod studies of school improvement efforts converge, thereby providing a foundation of substantial certainty regarding what works. Yet, these conclusions should not be viewed as *rules*, but rather as *suggestions*, not only because the research is still far from being conclusive, but also because strategic planning should be sensitive both to *contingencies* and to very specific *local conditions.*[126]

Decisions made with respect to one of the issues identified above create conditions that must be taken into account when thinking through the remaining issues. For example, if the combination of high staff interest, available resources, and the lack of a well-developed practice that addresses identified problems results in a decision to engage in local development, then the recommended policy of insisting that users implement innovations precisely as designed requires modification; for innovation development to work, feedback from users must be both elicited and taken into account.[127]

Also, there are often reasons to turn away respectfully from what are thought to be "best procedures." For example, although the research seems to point to the advisability of improvement programs having a pedagogical focus, there are times where school personnel need an in-service or development activity that focuses on their needs, on team building, or on conflict resolution. For example, since introducing schoolwide pedagogic improvements under conditions of high principal-teacher conflict usually will not work, schools facing such conditions should begin by addressing and resolving the conflict. Similarly, the value of strategic planning for school improvement is premised on the assumption that the school has well-established goals and a vision of the school that can be directly related to the need for specific improvement activities; if this is not the case, preliminary effort should be devoted to this type of organizationwide activity, or the pedagogic changes are likely to be evanescent.[128]

But noting that the process of change is too complex to be fully covered by hard-and-fast rules does not obviate the value of deriving implications for action from research. To the degree that school improvement planners review what is already known about each of the above strategic issues, the quality of their planning will improve. This will be especially true if, before deviating from consistent findings, they develop a cogent line of reasoning that explains how and why their circumstances permit or require them to do so. A thorough and informed planning effort can give administrators a genuine basis for satisfaction, teachers a genuine sense of pride and accomplishment, and students a significantly better education.

NOTES

1. The authors, by mutual agreement, have listed their names alphabetically.
2. The authors acknowledge and appreciate the helpful critiques of Susan Loucks-

Horsley, William Firestone, Barbara Fischer, and Martha McCarthy, the guest editor.

3. See, for example, M. Kirst, "Strengthening Federal Local Relationship Supporting Educational Change," in *The Dynamics of Planned Educational Change*, R. Herriot and N. Gross, eds. (Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1979); M. Fullan, *The Meaning of Educational Change* (New York: Teachers College Press, and Toronto: OISE Publications, 1982).

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5. D. Crandall et al., *People, Policies and Practices: Examining the Chain of School Improvement* (Andover, MA: The NETWORK, Inc., 1982); K. Louis, S. Rosenblum, and J. Molitor, *Strategies for Knowledge Use and School Improvement* (Washington, DC: National Institute for Education, 1981).

6. J. Emrick, S. Peterson, and R. Agawala-Rogers, *Evaluation of the National Diffusion Network* (Menlo Park, CA: Stanford Research Institute, 1977); J. Taylor, *The Infrastructure of Innovation: The Case of the National Diffusion Network*, Volume VIII in *People, Policies and Practices*, Crandall et al., eds.

7. Taylor, *The Infrastructure of Innovation.*

8. See, for example, Louis, Rosenblum, and Molitor, *Strategies for Knowledge Use and School Improvement*; J. Roberts and J. Kenney, *Instructional Improvement in Maryland: Impact on Educators and Students* (Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1984).

9. D. Crandall and S. Loucks, *Executive Summary*, Vol. X in *People, Policies and Practices*, Crandall et al., eds., p. 9.

10. C. Derr, "OD Won't Work in Schools," *Education and Urban Society* 8, 2 (1976): 227-241.

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12. P. Cowden and D. Cohen, *Divergent Worlds of Practice: The Federal Reform of Local Schools in the Experimental Schools Program* (Cambridge, MA: Huron Institute, 1979); R. Herriot and N. Gross, eds., *The Dynamics of Planned Educational Change*; S. Rosenblum and K. Louis, *Stability and Change: Innovation in an Educational Context* (New York: Plenum, 1981).

13. M. Fullan, M. Miles, and G. Taylor, "Organizational Development in Schools: The State of the Art," *Review of Educational Research* 50 (1980): 121-183.

14. See W. Firestone and R. Herriot, "Two Images of Schools as Organizations: An Explication and Illustrative Empirical Test," *Educational Administration Quarterly* 18, 2 (1982): 39-59; W. Firestone, "The Study of Loose Coupling" in *Research in Sociology of Education and Socialization*, A. Kerckoff, ed. (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 1985).

15. See, for example, M. Rutter, B. Maughan, P. Mortimore, J. Ouston, and A. Smith, *Fifteen Thousand Hours: Secondary Schools and Their Effects on Children* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1979); S. Purkey and M. Smith, "Effective Schools: A Review," *Elementary School Journal* 83, 4 (1983): 427-452.

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21. Fullan, *The Meaning of Educational Change.*

22. Firestone and Wilson, "Using Bureaucratic and Cultural Linkages to Improve Instruction: The High School Principal's Contribution." See also J. Murphy and P. Hallinger, "Policy Analysis at the Local Level: A Framework for Expanded Investigation," *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 6, 1 (1984): 5-14.

23. P. Berman and M. McLaughlin, *The Findings in Review*, Volume IV in *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change* (Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation, 1975); Louis, Rosenblum, and Molitor, *Strategies for Knowledge Use and School Improvement*; Crandall et al., *People, Policies and Practices.*

24. E. Rogers and F. Shoemaker, *Communication of Innovations* (New York: The Free Press, 1971).

25. Louis, Rosenblum, and Molitor, *Strategies for Knowledge Use and School Improvement.*

26. The procedure reported in S. Loucks, J. Bauchner, D. Crandall, W. Schmidt, and J. Eiseman, *Setting the Stage for a Study of School Improvement*, Vol. I in *People, Policies and Practices*, Crandall et al., eds., was developed collaboratively with the creators of the *innovation configuration* concept at the University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. Its educational utility is described in S. Loucks and D. Crandall, *The Practice Profile: An All-Purpose Tool for Program Communication, Staff Development, Evaluation, and Implementation* (Andover, MA: The NETWORK, Inc., 1981).

27. A. M. Huberman and M. Miles, *Innovation Up CLose: A Field Study in Twelve School Settings*, Vol. IV in *People, Policies and Practices*, Crandall et al., eds.

28. K. Louis and W. van Velzen, "Some Thoughts on Institutionalization" (Paper presented at the International School Improvement Project conference in Lucerne, Switzerland, June, 1985).

29. Huberman and Miles, *Innovation Up CLose.*

30. Berman and McLaughlin, *The Findings in Review*; Rosenblum and Louis, *Stability and Change: Innovation in an Educational Context*; Louis, Rosenblum, and Molitor, *Strategies for Knowledge Use and School Improvement;* Farrar, Neufeld, and Miles, "Effective School Programs in High Schools"; Crandall et al., eds., *People, Policies and Practices.*

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Staff Development
In Small and Rural School Districts

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Chapter 3

Ideas That Work

Staff development is a *system*, not a single idea or one inservice program. Staff development is ongoing and occurs at many different levels. The following are effective examples of building blocks that can be used to build a comprehensive program of staff development.

Individualized Staff Development Programs

Individualized programs are ideal for small/rural school districts. They capitalize on the staff members' self-directed goals and their creativity. In addition, they have the advantage of being very inexpensive.

Teachers Write Their Own IEP (Individualized Education Plan)

In School Administrative District No. 54, Skowhegan, Maine, the staff development committee provides a wide variety of activities to address identified district needs. One that has been very successful according to the district, is having the teacher write his/her own individualized staff development plan much like handicapped students receive in special education. During the summer, the superintendent and the board develop the district's goals and objectives for the school year. Principals and the special education director then incorporate those directions into their objectives for the coming year.

Using these objectives as a basis, individual teachers may develop their own IEPs. Teachers' plans usually go beyond the district and building level objectives to their own goals for personal and professional improvement. A teacher's IEP might include such items as visitations, piloting experimental programs, developing new materials for special students, attendance at workshops, and writing or reading articles or books. Other options include working with other teachers on curriculum improvement, developing information exchanges, taking courses, working on schoolwide or districtwide projects, being a mentor for a less-experienced teacher, serving on district or school level committees or developing models or programs which can be shared with other schools or nearby districts. Programs which have been developed and shared include assertive discipline, handicapped awareness, the teacher and school law, improving communication, and substance abuse.

Madonna College, Offers "Improve Your School Program and Earn Credits"

Madonna College, Michigan, has attempted to reach out to rural teachers through this innovative program. Applicants select their own course title, formulate objectives and propose an outline to be approved by college faculty. The course can include committee work, individualized programs and on-the-job research or activity. Consultation with experts is available either through telephone conferences or on-site visitations from college staff.

School Union No. 98's Answer

School Union No. 98 is located on Mount Desert Island, Maine. For years, teachers had been traveling over a difficult and at times dangerous 60-mile stretch of road to attend courses at the University of Maine to receive their state mandated recertification credits. The state education department offered to SU No. 98 the option of piloting an experimental program through which teachers and administrators could develop guidelines for recertifying their teachers locally through a locally designed and approved plan. A committee of 13 teachers, administrators and community representatives worked for one year on a staff development plan which was approved by the local school board, the faculty and the state.

Teachers and administrators still must earn recertification credits, but the plan is locally devised and accepted. Options for professional improvement and recertification credit might include attendance at workshops and conferences, work on study committees, development of improved teaching methods and materials, authorship of programs, purposeful travel, research and experimentation, participation on accreditation teams, participation in experimental programs and traditional university work. Needs assessments are conducted regularly. Teachers and administrators present their plan, project or course to the elected teachers and community members who serve as the local staff development committee. The committee is empowered by the state to approve re-certification locally.

Programs from State Departments

State education departments (SEAs) can provide leadership and resources to help rural/small districts develop quality staff development programs. The following are examples of the SEAs at work.

Vermont's RAP (Resource Agent Program) Workshops

These workshops illustrate an innovative approach to state department service in a rural state. A catalog of 30 workshops is available to local Vermont districts. Resource agents, selected from the ranks of highly skilled practitioners, serve as workshop leaders. One or more teachers may select a desired workshop and arrange topics, times and locations directly with the resource agents. The workshop's activities expose teachers to new techniques in various subjects. The workshops stress active participant involvement through practice, simulation exercises, construction of learning games and the development of instructional objectives.

Maryland Professional Development Academy

Sponsored by the Maryland State Department of Education, the academy provides principals a live-in institute aimed at answering their most pressing needs and thereby improving instruction. The academy offers a wide range of activities, including a pre-institute planning workshop, a week-long live-in institute and two overnight follow-up conferences held three and six months after the institute itself. Participants agree to design and implement a building level action plan as a part of the institute. The academy offers programs in assessing teacher effectiveness and implementing special educational programs.

Maine Comprehensive System of Personnel Development

Under the leadership of Margaret Arbuckle of the Maine Department of Educational and Cultural Services, Maine's Comprehensive System of Personnel Development focuses not on the topics of staff development, but on the process itself. Rather than impose a state-created plan, the emphasis of the Maine SEA is to assist school districts to devise local staff development systems. To start, several districts were identified that wanted to be part of a system of staff development. Six to eight persons from each district trained for approximately eight days, returned to their districts and helped to develop a local plan for staff development. The state department provided the coordination, training and identification of resources districts could use to promote their work "back home."

Often a new approach to scheduling is required to conduct effective staff development. This kind of flexibility is more easily arranged in a small school setting.

Extended Year Program

From a larger suburban school district comes this idea that could work very well in small/rural locations. Community Consolidated School District No. 146 in Finley Park, Illinois gives one-fourth of the district teachers and all of the district administrators from 15 to 18 consecutive days of inservice training immediately following the close of school each summer. Teachers are paid a daily training stipend which is equivalent to each participant's regular daily teaching salary. The board of education allocates more than 1 percent of the educational fund each year to inservice training in the district. Based upon a needs assessment, the program focuses on three major topics: interpersonal relationships, teaching strategies and specific content areas of the curriculum. The extended year program was designed with the assumption that *time* is a critical factor in successful inservice training. CCSD No. 146 believes that the traditional approach to inservice education does not allow the concentrated time needed for creative change. Some of the advantages of an extended program are:

- The program is designed and carried out locally.
- Follow-up adds continuity during the school year.
- Teachers have time to work together without closing school during the school year.

Staff Development: Technology at Work

As part of their creativity and inventiveness, many districts are using media and other technology to promote staff development and enrichment. The following are examples of innovative use of technology:

Telephone Inservice

The Kansas Statewide Continuing Education Network conducts classroom instruction via two-way telephone lines into 23 Kansas communities. Voices are amplified so that the instructor and the student can converse freely. Verbal instruction is supplemented by hand-out materials.

Training by Satellite

The Appalachian Education Satellite Project attempts to bring inservice training to rural teachers in isolated areas. The Appalachian project provides four graduate level courses to teachers using NASA's ATS-6 communication satellite, at 15 sites throughout the Appalachian region, from New York to Alabama. The courses use videotaped lessons or pretaped television programs, in association with audio-transmitted review segments, laboratory sessions, unit tests and libraries of related materials. The satellite transmits the pretaped television programs and the audio-review segments. Live interaction seminars are interspersed throughout the course.

Radio Transmission

Satellite radio is used to promote teacher-to-teacher professional communication and continuing education opportunities for teachers in remote areas. In Alaska, there is a National Education Association-sponsored experiment in satellite communication. This 13-week course is accredited for three hours by the University of Alaska especially for teachers in small Alaskan villages who may have no access to other professional development activities. The National Education Association also implements the Satellite Alaska-Hawaii Association Hour (NEASAT), a bi-weekly teacher center of the air which includes such topics as "What Works for Me in the Classroom" and "Native Land Claims." Discussion questions and support material on each topic are mailed to participants in the villages well in advance of the broadcast.

Professional Development on the Road

Rural Pennsylvania, working with Pennsylvania State University, has equipped a mobile van for computer-assisted instruction. The van brings a course in special education to teachers in Pennsylvania who are unable to return to the college campus. The course, called CARE (Computer-Assisted Remedial Education), enables a teacher to recognize and help children in the regular class who have handicaps that might go undetected. The van contains a central IBM computer with 15 student terminals. It is parked at a particular school where teachers have private tutoring at a time convenient for them.

Mobile Teaching Unit

The University of Iowa Center for Educational Experimentation, Development and Evaluation sponsors a similar mobile teaching unit. The van expands into a 17x40-foot classroom accommodating 20 students. It contains computer terminals, videotape players, other audiovisual equipment, and 400 pieces of instructional material. Materials are organized for self-directed learning. Staff members check their level of knowledge with the computers and select appropriate steps in the learning process. Course materials include information on the educational abilities of various exceptional children and on the mainstreaming process, strategies and techniques for assisting handicapped children and a review of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, P.L. 94-142.

Peer Teaching as a Technique

Another creative staff development technique is peer teaching. The expert from out-of-town may not be the right resource for small/rural school districts. As an alternative, small districts might look first to individuals from their own locale who are capable of providing staff development expertise.

Training the District Team

Hastings-on-Hudson, New York, for example, trained five teachers from two schools and a high school principal as program leaders in a pilot project. In the second and third year of the project, the five teachers became trainers of other staff members in the district. Inservice training in the district is voluntary, but teachers are eligible for inservice credit. Teachers who complete the course learn: 1) to group students heterogeneously so they can teach each other; 2) to observe and be observed by their trainers and their peers; and 3) to develop units on vocabulary, reading comprehension and patterns of organization. In addition to improving students' reading in the content areas, the teachers will gain personal skills to enhance communication among faculty members within the school district.

Local Communication Leaders

Improved communication was the greatest need identified by teachers and administrators in Maine's school district No. 54 during a staff development needs assessment. Instead of calling in an outside expert, the committee decided to train a team of the district's teachers in group dynamics, problem identification and brainstorming techniques. The trained teachers then returned to their local schools to work with fellow teachers on defining their communication concerns. On a staff development day the participants drew up plans to improve their communication. As the year progressed, the staff development committee sponsored many activities to facilitate communication on a district level. As a culminating event, all staff members were invited to attend a districtwide field day and barbecue. The superintendent cooked breakfast. A districtwide dinner-dance was held. Teachers made a concerted effort to send positive notes home to parents.

Cooperation Among Districts

Joint efforts among districts also can solve staff development problems in rural and small systems where the individual district staffs are small.

15 Rural Districts Establish Inservice Center

Southeastern Colorado is a sparsely settled agricultural and ranching area. Teachers and administrators in the area felt that they had to find a better way to provide for the professional growth of staff members. Not only were the classes offered at the closest University not suitable for their needs, but the 200-mile drive to the institution was burdensome as well. Therefore, 15 districts formed the Southeastern Colorado Educational Renewal Center to serve the 400 teachers and administrators in the area. The center was approved by the Colorado Department of Education to offer recertification credit. The center runs a one-week summer session in June and a second in August.

The offerings fall into two categories: 1) horizon-expanding courses such as history of the area, administrative renewal and arts and crafts in the classroom; and 2) skill building courses such as reading, classroom management and discipline. Two basic requirements of all courses taught by the center are that the courses be practical and authoritative.

Potential course instructors must conduct a one-hour trial lesson in front of other instructors. Several of the center's instructors are not educators. For example, a district court judge who handles juvenile cases teaches a course on Colorado's child abuse law. Courses taken during the summer lead to staff development activities during the school year. In addition, a course is offered during the winter. Activities range from a physical fitness course to discussions by a minister on the power of positive thinking.

Some National Attention

Small and rural districts also can take advantage of tried and tested programs that work. Some are known nationally, while others may be less well known.

A National Network

The National Diffusion Network (NDN) is a federally funded program that enables schools to improve their educational offerings by helping them "adopt" more than 160 exemplary NDN projects. NDN makes it possible to select programs that seem appropriate and meet a district's identified needs. NDN projects appeal to teachers because most of them were developed by classroom teachers who had a good idea about how to solve a classroom problem. The most important aspects of the project adoption are teacher and administrative commitment and the inservice training that is provided with each adoption. For more information about the NDN or a listing of NDN facilitators and projects, contact the Division of Educational Replication, U.S. Department of Education, Room 3616, 7th and D Streets, SW, Washington, DC 20201. (Phone: 202/245-2243)

Resources for Staff Development

Margaret Arbuckle **and** ***Daryl Hahn*****, Maine Staff Development Network, State Department of Education and Cultural Services, Augusta, Maine 04333, have written a very practical "how to" booklet entitled,** ***Guide to School Improvement and Staff Development*****. (Phone: 207/289-3451)**

The National Academy for School Executives (NASE)**, The American Association of School Administrators, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, VA. 22209, offers workshops and seminars and custom training programs to administrators and teachers. Seminar schedules and information on contract programs are available on request. (Phone: 703/528-0700.)**

Hampshire Educational Collaborative of Massachusetts**, 137 Russell, Hadley, MA 01035, has published a guide entitled** ***Helping Teachers Become Inservice Facilitators*****. (Phone: 413/586-4590.)**

National Council of States on Inservice Education**, Syracuse University, 123 Huntington Hall, Syracuse, NY 13210, is a good resource, particularly in relation to questions of staff development policy. (Phone: 315/423-4164)**

National Inservice Network**, Indiana University, 2853 E. 10th St., Bloomington, IN. 47405, has over 30 publications covering a wide variety of staff development topics. (Phone: 812/337-2734)**

The National Staff Development Council**, 5198 Westgate Drive, Oxford, OH 45056, published an excellent newsletter containing practical ideas and guidance in staff development. (Phone: 513/523-6029) •**

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Everyday Acts: How Principals Influence Development of Their Staffs

Effective principals stimulate and reinforce teachers' professional development through informal—but focused—communication and monitoring.

Findings from a five-year study by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development suggest that principals exercise leadership in subtle ways (Dwyer 1984). Although the study did not specifically look at staff development, I will use data from that inquiry to discuss ways in which principals can, through routine daily actions, influence the professional growth of teachers.

The study compiled more than 10,000 pages of notes collected from 1,100 hours of observations and interviews with teachers, students, and principals. Concentrating on 12 elementary and intermediate principals from a wide range of school settings who had been nominated as effective by their district supervisors, the analysis of the data revealed nine categories of routine behaviors that principals used to manage their schools: (1) goal setting and planning; (2) monitoring; (3) evaluating; (4) communicating; (5) scheduling, allocating resources, and organizing; (6) staffing; (7) modeling; (8) governing; and (9) substituting for staff members.

Data also supported the findings of other researchers: 60 to 70 percent of a principal's daily activities fell under the heading of communicating (Martin and Willower 1981). And principals' interactions were informal, brief, and fragmented—few of the principals' exchanges were longer than ten minutes. What was particularly appealing about the information obtained by the researchers, however, was the unique opportunity it provided for analyzing not just the duration of principals' conversations but also their content.

Subtle Techniques for Staff Development

As a result of analyzing hundreds of these recorded conversations, I identified six ways that principals in the study appeared to exercise instructional leadership through staff development. They did so by:

- informing teachers of professional opportunities,
- disseminating professional and curriculum materials,
- focusing staff attention on a specific theme,
- soliciting teachers' opinions,
- encouraging experimentation, and
- recognizing individual teachers' achievements.

Communications about these various areas appeared to occur almost incidentally. When viewed overall, however, they represented a purposeful, potentially effective strategy for promoting staff development. Despite the fragmented manner in which many of the conversations occurred, such informal exchanges appeared to have great impact. In many instances teachers seemed to appreciate this informal mode of supervision.

Informal supervision appears to have some advantages over more formal teacher evaluation procedures. While some principals complain about time lost to routine activities, principals in the Far West study used those actions to influence subtly the professional development of their teachers. Although principals as well as researchers have criticized the brief, broken, and spontaneous nature of principals' communications, it may well be that those very characteristics make the substance of the conversations more appealing and acceptable to teachers. Quick exchanges that occur in the familiar surroundings of a hallway or lounge may convey a principal's message of concern and support in a less threatening manner than would a formal meeting.

Further elaboration of the six ways in which principals were found to promote staff development, together with some illustrations from the study data, may better demonstrate this argument.

1. *Informing teachers of professional opportunities.* The principals whom Far West studied kept track of profes-

sional activities for teachers, both at the district level and in the community, through newspapers, professional literature, and district announcements. They routinely passed on items they thought were important or that they knew were of interest to their teachers. One teacher gave an example of the principal's passing on information about a mathematics league: "I didn't even know about it, but he put [the brochure] in my box. He's always doing that . . . sticking things in my mailbox." In another school, a teacher said,

> [The principal] gives us an awful lot of ideas about conferences, seminars, and things like that. She was the one who told me about workshops . . . in math. . . . Basically whenever something comes up, she tries to inform us.

Although they might have announced opportunities to their staffs in general, the principals' personal follow-throughs appeared to make a difference in teachers' responses. For instance, one teacher described himself as "one of the ones that [the principal] took . . . to learn about [a reading skills management] program." The teacher reported that, as a result of this occurrence, he had been a leader in establishing the reading program at the school. Another teacher laughed as she described how her principal had enrolled her in an activity: "He just signed me up for something. . . . He told me I was going to have a . . . swell summer. . . . Sure, I'll go. He knows what interests me."

Efforts such as these—providing bits of information about a program or encouraging a teacher's professional interests—are ways in which principals, through relatively small actions, can exert incremental influence on their teachers' development.

2. *Disseminating professional and curriculum materials.* Principals duplicated and distributed articles, handed out curriculum materials, lent books to individual teachers, and set up displays for their faculties in central locations. One principal who had been shown a programmed curriculum he thought worth investigation invited two of his teachers to consider how it could be integrated into the school. During this process, the two teachers caught the attention of others. As a result, seven teachers ended up using the curriculum as enrichment material in their classrooms.

"Personal one-on-one follow-up by the principals seemed to have a positive influence on teachers' responses to the principals' activities."

Another principal had read articles on allocated time and engaged time in classrooms. On the first day of the school year, she distributed copies of the articles to all the teachers and stressed their importance. During the next few months, the principal casually asked teachers what they thought about the articles. If the teachers had not read them, the principal usually summarized some of the ideas. Some teachers, apparently motivated by the principal's questions, later read the articles and then sought out the principal to give her their opinions.

Once again, personal one-on-one follow-up by the principals seemed to have a positive influence on teachers' responses to the principals' activities. Conversational inquiries soliciting teachers' opinions about a display or an article may have increased the impact of the disseminated materials by promoting teachers' exposure to them.

3. *Focusing staff attention on a specific theme.* The principals in the study tended to select instructional themes or areas of interest on which they tried to focus teachers'—and even students'—attention. These themes became topics of discussion with individual teachers who, we found, were aware of them because the principals gave them continual visibility. Teachers were repeatedly recorded using the same phrases and terms as their principals. In one school where the principal stressed a need to make good citizens of the students, several teachers quoted the principal verbatim, saying: "We really work to civilize 'em."

Perhaps the best example of a school theme was found in a setting where the principal had immersed herself in the research literature on effective schools and emphasized high expectations for students. Many teachers at this school described the principal as having high expectations. The point was brought home vividly, though, in one of the study's student interviews. A wide-eyed primary student, questioned about the principal, said: "She has high expectations for us." The student then acknowledged that she did not know what "high expectations" meant, but she added, "It's good."

Visibility was a key in another school where the principal focused on reading skills. Each class in the school was scheduled for two library periods each week, which were essentially additional reading classes. The principal reinforced her plan with a verbal emphasis on reading and library activities. She questioned teachers and students about their activities, what they were reading, or how the students were responding to "pleasure reading." She asked teachers about individual students' progress and often asked students to read to her as part of her classroom visits. She also frequented the library and conversed with students and teachers who were working there. In interviews, every teacher in this school mentioned the emphasis on reading.

Another principal, who also focused on reading, required teachers to implement a reading skills management program. Teachers could use program materials in any way they wished, but the principal kept close track of students' progress by displaying a progress chart in every classroom and maintaining individual student progress files as well as a school-level skills chart in his office. The principal routinely inspected the classroom charts and praised both teachers and students for marked gains.

By focusing on themes, the principals exerted leadership in instructional matters. Moreover, they encouraged their staff members to consider concepts and practices that they otherwise might not have considered.

One Teacher Grows: A Case in Point

For one second-grade teacher, the school year had an inauspicious beginning. Although she had specifically requested a straight second-grade class, the principal had been forced to assign her a split class of second- and third-graders. The principal apologized for this and for assigning her a particular third-grader who was a discipline problem. The principal assured the teacher of her ability to handle the situation and promised his support.

In walk-throughs of the class and during recess, the principal made a point of chatting with the problem third-grader. He would ask how the student was getting along and tell him he was lucky to have this particular teacher. The principal consulted with the teacher about the situation and asked for ways he could help her. The teacher acknowledged the principal's support: "If you feel a principal doesn't think you are professional, then you're fighting all the time. If he or she is confident, then you have all the freedom to do what you need to do."

As the year progressed, the principal's support became apparent in other ways. He left a pile of catalogs of educational materials in the faculty lounge with an invitation: "Construct a wish list, and I'll see what I can do." The principal suggested to the second-grade teacher that she might enjoy an exhibit of puppets that was on display at a local museum. When he later asked her opinion of the exhibit, the teacher had not yet seen it. A few days later, however, she told him that she had visited the display and had found it quite enjoyable. The principal mentioned that he had seen an old puppet theater in the school basement, and the teacher put several books about puppetry on her "wish list." The principal persuaded the school librarian to process the order right away.

As a result of the principal's gentle suggestions and support, the teacher's class produced two puppet plays, one of which they wrote. As they produced the plays and performed in them, students learned about voice quality, costuming, staging, and props, and were exposed to some fairly advanced processes such as discussing the meaning of a play and recognizing constructive criticism.

The project stimulated other teachers' interest. A second teacher arranged to share the puppet theater, and a third claimed that the theater had been hers and she wanted it back. As a result, a second theater was constructed in an after-school carpentry class.

The first teacher stated unequivocally that she would never have taken on the puppetry project without the principal's support. On the heels of this success, the teacher planned to expand the puppet program the following year using a video recorder, having students write their own material, and taking the show on the road to a local nursery school.

—Barbara McEvoy

4. *Soliciting teachers' opinions.* The practice of soliciting teachers' ideas was closely tied to the ways in which principals disseminated materials and stressed particular themes. The principals sought to locate and solve instructional problems in their schools by questioning teachers about their classroom activities, their feelings concerning school and classroom issues, and their views of certain materials. This process of soliciting information appeared to have multiple advantages—not the least of which was the recognition of teachers as professionals and colleagues.

One teacher described a situation in which she had gone to her principal with a problem:

> [The principal] asked me how I felt about the class. You know, I was wanting some feedback from her because I wanted to know how I was doing and she asked me, well, how did I feel about it? It really surprised me. And I guess that was important.

This teacher discussed the various techniques she and the principal eventually worked out to better control her class. The teacher voiced her appreciation that the principal had talked with her as an equal, as someone whose ideas were valid. The teacher reported that after their initial talk she personally placed more value on her own classroom experience.

A five-minute conversation between a principal and a teacher in a hallway further demonstrated the level of such communications. The principal had observed the teacher's class for a few minutes earlier in the day and began by complimenting the teacher's lesson. She then asked about the students who were part of the English-as-a-second-language program. The teacher explained why she was using a particular technique, and then the teacher and the principal discussed alternatives. The principal asked the teacher to "hypothesize" with her as to how much a particular student had actually learned and how much was "rote repetition." Together they talked about how they could assess what the student was learning.

Another teacher said this about a principal:

> She'll ask the staff what we feel that we need . . . to make us better teachers or better able to cope with particular problems. We discuss and we talk. . . . "Hey, look at this," "Well, I went to this workshop . . ." or "Wouldn't it be better if we did this?"

By soliciting information from teachers, the principals seemed not only to obtain useful feedback about instructional issues, but also to contribute to the collegiality and professionalism of their staffs.

5. *Encouraging experimentation.* Principals seemed to convey support for their teachers in general attitude as well as in informal conversation. Teachers in turn reported a willingness to experiment with new or innovative techniques because they felt their principals were supportive and would not penalize them for experiments that failed. These were among the teachers' comments:

> - Any time you learn anything new and are excited about it, he's really open to hearing about it and trying it out if you want.
> - I feel whatever I say, whatever I'm doing in my room, if it's a learning situation, I'm going to get her support.
> - Because I know she trusts my judgment, I go to her with . . . monumental plans. She says, "When would you like to do this?" and she helps you find a way to do it.
> - Anything basically that you can show her that is something you need or something you want to do that is a method or a tool to that end, she will do anything she can to go along with you and help you achieve that.
> - He's real positive, and he lets you try new things. . . . He doesn't say, "Okay, we're using this book, and you're going to use it whether you like it or not.

The attitude of a principal may be a crucial factor in the willingness of his or her staff to pursue new ideas and programs. Because of their principals' support and encouragement, teachers at these schools appeared to have—and to exercise—opportunities for both personal and professional growth.

6. *Recognizing individual teachers' achievements.* The principals in the study went beyond support and encouragement for teacher experimentation by actually facilitating teacher exchanges and publicly recognizing individual teacher achievements. Principals publicized teachers' successes by talking about them to parents, other teachers, and community members. They also encouraged teachers to seek information or assistance from successful colleagues, which provided opportunities not only for instructional improvement, but also for increased self-esteem for the teachers whose special work was being recognized.

In one example of such recognition, a principal described an innovative math and investments program at a PTA meeting. The teacher responsible for the program heard from others about the principal's report and was pleased at what amounted to a public commendation. In another instance, a teacher said:

> I was very into Project Write in the classroom, and the kids had done a lot of really fine work . . . so [the principal] asked me to put together a workshop so that I could show the other teachers what we were doing.

Teachers reported that having teachers teach their colleagues added a measure of credibility to the content of inservice programs. They also saw those situations as ways to recognize teachers for work well done.

Making Leadership Routine

Principals often complain that their effectiveness and ability to launch innovative curriculum or major staff development programs are hampered by their daily routine. The research of the Far West study suggests, however, that principals can actually stimulate and reinforce professional growth within their schools—for individual teachers and their staffs as a whole. Principals in the study persuaded teachers to reflect on their teaching processes, attend workshops, take advantage of opportunities in their communities, experiment with new ideas, and learn from each other. Through their daily interactions, these principals used their brief and fragmented communications to encourage and inspire teachers.

"Quick exchanges that occur in the familiar surroundings of a hallway or lounge may convey a principal's message of concern and support in a less threatening manner than would a formal meeting."

Of course, principals do not need researchers to tell them that they spend the bulk of their days communicating. They know that they talk continually to teachers, parents, and students. Even as they monitor the halls for late arrivals or keep watch during lunch time, principals usually are talking with someone. Particularly noteworthy, however, is the study's finding that the principals' communications had a number of purposes in common.

For some principals, this process of communication and informal supervision seemed intuitive. For others it was very conscious. One principal described the approach as "pulling": "I'm consciously pulling. [The teachers] have to own what they do, but I'm pulling all the time. 'Did you think of this?' 'Could you do this?' " Another principal's process was one of "planting seeds." She said, "They don't all take, but enough do." Analysis of their numerous though abbreviated conversations suggests that principals can be quite purposeful and—contrary to what they themselves may believe—*effective* in their communications. Thus, by identifying and focusing on the overarching purposes of their routine, principals, through their daily interactions, were able to exercise instructional leadership and to promote the professional development of their staffs. ☐

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The first statewide career ladder in the nation, Tennessee's program is off and running, and its designers learned a few things that might be useful to others.

Tennessee's experience with the first statewide comprehensive Career Ladder Program, now in its third year, has unveiled issues that anyone installing an incentive program must confront. As a result, we have made changes in the Career Ladder evaluation process to accommodate these issues as we continue to improve the system.

Tennessee's evaluation system assesses a teacher's competence in six major areas: planning, teaching strategies, classroom management, evaluation, leadership, and communication. The multidata source system includes information from classroom observation, dialogue, student questionnaire, principal questionnaire, professional growth and leadership summary, and a written test. Instrumentation accounts for 75 percent of the evaluation decision; 25 percent comes from a consensus score of three peer teachers who serve as evaluators. The evaluation process does not separate competent from incompetent teachers but rewards excellent teachers for outstanding performance.

By defining seven major issues and offering advice about each one, we hope to help others develop their system more quickly and efficiently.

Involvement /Communication

Issue: A statewide Certification Commission, composed predominantly of educators, developed Tennessee's teacher evaluation system. During the developmental process, teachers helped identify competencies and indicators and participated in a comprehensive field test. As we developed and implemented the system, we instituted various communication methods, such as a toll-free hotline, direct mail to teachers, meetings, videotapes, workshops, and a Teacher Orientation Manual.

Because communication was still weak, the State Department of Education revamped its district offices and provided staff to meet with teachers and administrators at the school and system level. We expanded the *Teacher Orientation Manual* to provide more information to candidates about the program.

The perception that teachers were not adequately involved in developing the Career Ladder Program remains a sensitive issue. Although we cannot change historical perceptions, we have worked to change teachers' present roles in the program. Successful candidates attend and support open houses held for teachers applying for evaluation. Career Level II and III teachers engage in dialogues with other teachers about the program, creating a new and valuable source of information.

Advice: Not only do teachers need to be actively involved in the development of an incentive program, their participation must be communicated effectively to all teachers. The program should include a comprehensive, interactive communications plan capable of reaching all affected staff members. Published information about the system must be succinct and attractive, and technically and procedurally comprehensive. Teachers want to know exactly what is expected, and what will happen during the evaluation. Teachers also want to know that the administration hears and remedies their concerns; this too needs to be publicized.

Confidentiality

Issue: During the first year of the Career Ladder Program, we used scales to rate portfolios and interviews. During the second year, however, we eliminated confidential rating scales, made scoring more qualitative, and made all instrumentation open to teachers.

Advice: All information, instrumentation, and rating scales should be provided to teachers prior to their evaluation (excluding any secure tests of professional knowledge or subject matter content). Quantitative measures, which note how many times a teacher does a certain activity, often do not distinguish good teachers from outstanding teachers. On the other hand, qualitative measures, which determine both the frequency and the excellence of the activity, must be used in the assessment process.

Paperwork

Issue: In the program's first year, we asked teachers to create portfolios that contained instructional plans, classroom management procedures, evaluation procedures, and leadership and professional development activities. Portfolio preparation became a paperwork nightmare for teachers. Teachers

Pay for Performance in Fairfax County, Virginia

Jean Hall

A Pay for Performance program in Fairfax County, Virginia, has gained strong support from teachers, administrators, school board members, and community during its eight-school pilot during this year. Through professional growth and development, the plan is able to make improved teaching its primary goal.

Saphier and Gower's *The Skillful Teacher*, which provides the program's instructional improvement model, is designed to increase teachers' and principals' awareness and use of 16 observable parameters. In voluntary building-level staff-development courses co-taught by the principal and a staff development specialist, teachers learn to develop a wide repertoire of teaching strategies and to match their teaching to the situation, class, and individual student. As part of the course, teachers visit each other's classes, develop a shared teaching language with administrators, and learn to offer objective feedback.

In the Fairfax model, appraisal has moved from an individual decision to a team process. Peer-teacher observers and curriculum specialists visit teachers' classrooms, conducting a pre-observation conference, observation, and post-observation conference. They forward their observations in a report to the principal, who considers the information with his own data from classroom visits before making an evaluation decision. While the evaluation process holds teachers accountable to county goals, it also supports the staff development and coaching.

The program calls for teachers to progress along a three-step career ladder with each advance tied to professional growth. Most important, teachers are involved in all aspects of the plan through their new roles as peer observers, consulting teachers, and staff development instructors.

—Jean Hall is Director, Office of Staff Development and Training, Fairfax County Public Schools, Walnut Hill Center, 7423 Camp Alger Ave., Falls Church, VA 22042.

who wanted to excel spent endless hours on their portfolios—an expenditure that did little to enhance classroom instruction!

Interviews also required extensive documentation. Evaluators documented teachers' answers to each of their questions. The interviews, structured and controlled by the evaluator, lasted several hours and proved to be a time-consuming ordeal for the evaluator and a stressful and exhaustive experience for the teacher.

We eliminated the teacher portfolio in the second year, except for the candidate's report of professional development and leadership activities. We replaced the interview with three one-hour dialogues with the candidate. Each of the three evaluators spends an hour with each teacher in an informal discussion of one of three major areas: planning, teaching strategies, or evaluation. During this time, 30 minutes is devoted to structured questions, and 30 minutes is unstructured time in which the teacher shares information informally with the evaluator. Thus, by identifying important and relevant information, the teacher becomes an active participant in the discussion. Moreover, rather than creating material for the dialogue, the teacher refers to previously used classroom material.

Advice: No evaluation system should create a paperwork burden for teachers. Interviews should require no special preparation, but should refer to materials the teacher is currently using. By asking the teacher to respond to structured questions as well as to initiate topics for discussion, the evaluator encourages the teacher to include all information pertinent to the discussion. All measures should focus on performance, not on ability to create convincing paperwork.

Scoring

Issue: We faced several complex measurement issues in Tennessee's Career Ladder. One was combining and weighting the indicators from various instruments to obtain a score for each major area. Another was keeping the statewide system fair and equitable for all teachers. So many teachers applied for evaluation the first year that we could not schedule and evaluate everyone. To be fair to the first year's candidates and to those in subsequent years, we needed to ensure a consistent level of difficulty.

The scoring issue came to teachers' attention because some major changes were made to the evaluation process in the first year. Thus, the systems for the next two years (1984–85 and 1985–86) had to be equated to ensure the same level of difficulty. Technically, we could do this only after the evaluation data were collected. As a result of the delay, however, teachers became mistakenly concerned that data were being manipulated and that quotas existed. Prior to initiating the evaluation system, standards had been set, and anyone who had a qualifying score received Career Level II or III status. Under the current system, candidates know the range of scores made by Career Level II and III candidates in the previous year and, consequently, the level of competence that will be expected of them.

Advice: Keep scoring and standard setting simple. Do not let the evaluation system get bogged down in technical measurement issues. Prior to implementation, decide how necessary changes will be made in the system and explain these procedures to teachers. Allow a year to field-test new items or changes, and then set standards from field-test data rather than from a technical equating process after the fact.

Career Development

Issue: As part of the Career Ladder Program was instituted, we created the Tennessee Instructional Model (T.I.M.) to match staff development training modules to major areas of the evaluation process. Twenty-two thousand teachers participated in T.I.M. training during the program's first year. To meet the increasing demand for career development, during the program's second summer, we offered skills enhancement workshops to teachers entering the evaluation cycle in the forthcoming school year and to those who had been unsuccessful in one or more areas in their first attempt.

Career development is also vital for more experienced teachers. Mentorship training gives Career Level II and III teachers strategies for assisting beginning teachers. Experienced teachers from around the state also want opportunities to meet by grade level or subject area to exchange ideas and revitalize their skills.

Advice: Experienced teachers in a career ladder program want professional development opportunities: (1) to prepare them for entering the evaluation process, (2) to assist teachers who are not successful in their first attempt, and (3) to enable teachers who have obtained upper-level status to continue their development. Based on teachers' competence and experience, a tiered approach to career development can be useful.

Multidata Source Systems

Issue: Each year, teachers who have gone through the evaluation process also have assessed the Career Ladder Program. They give high marks to: (1) the use of peer teachers as evaluators, (2) the classroom observation process (including six classroom visits with pre- and postobservation conferences), and (3) the multidata source system.

Teachers are receptive to well-trained and qualified peer teachers conducting their evaluations and prefer teachers from the same grade level and subject area. Teachers rate classroom observation highest among the seven data sources, believing it should be the primary data source in any career decision. Although teachers like the multidata source approach, the professional skills test was the only data source that they gave a neutral rather than a favorable rating. In 1985–86, the teachers rated the data sources on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale as follows:

Classroom Observation	3.8
Dialogues	3.7
Principal Questionnaire	3.6
Peer Questionnaire	3.6
Professional Growth and Leadership Summary	3.5
Student Questionnaire	3.4
Professional Skills Test	3.0

The multidata source system received a score of 4.2, and the use of peer evaluators received a score of 4.3.

Advice: Include peer teachers on evaluation teams. Focus the evaluation process on classroom observation, but gather additional information from other sources. Because practicing teachers do not favor testing as part of the evaluation process, states need to study it seriously before including it.

[redacted]

"Quantitative measures, which note how many times a teacher does a certain activity, often do not distinguish good teachers from outstanding teachers."

Evaluation Cycle

Issue: The Career Ladder evaluations in 1984–85 and 1985–86 were year-long processes. The first evaluator visit was announced, and the other two visits were unannounced. Teachers felt the year-long timeframe created too much anxiety and stress. The 1986–87 evaluations are being done in two cycles, one each semester.

Advice: Complete the evaluation process within three months. Make the first visit an announced observation, and keep the other visits unannounced. Allow at least two weeks between observation visits, but create a beginning and ending time that is reasonable for the teacher.

Will the Career Ladder Continue?

Any new initiative, particularly one that creates a major change in an existing organization, is not easy to implement. Differing opinions can be heard across the state, but the high level of teacher participation is a positive indicator of the program's success.

The Career Ladder is in its third year, and many exciting things are happening in Tennessee. First, teachers are receiving higher salaries and incentives for outstanding performance. Second, Career Ladder teachers are serving as mentors to beginning teachers. Third, the majority of Career Level II and III teachers are electing to work extended contracts and to provide new learning opportunities for students. Fourth, teachers' staff development opportunities are increasing and are being geared to meet developmental needs. Fifth, student achievement scores are improving in Tennessee. Although rising test scores cannot be attributed solely to the Career Ladder Program, better student performance is a positive indicator that the total reform package—the Better Schools Program—is working.

The Tennessee Education Association is exerting pressure to change or to repeal the Career Ladder Program. This is a wait-and-see year in Tennessee. Governor Lamar Alexander, a strong proponent of the program, has left office. The new governor, Ned Ray McWherter, has publicly stated his commitment to the program, but he intends to support changes that will simplify the evaluation process and attune it to the desires of teachers.

Career ladders and other incentive programs are an important part of restructuring the teaching profession. The financial rewards and expanded career options can offer incentives for teachers to become better at their craft. As educators implement new programs, identify issues, and share advice, incentive programs will become increasingly important to our ability to attract, retain, and reward outstanding teachers.☐

Author's note: The November 1985 issue of ***Educational Leadership*** contained several articles about Tennessee's Career Ladder Program. To date, over 90 percent of Tennessee's eligible teachers have entered the Career Ladder Program. Nearly 40,000 educators have received Career Level I certification, which provides a $1,000 incentive. Seven thousand educators have been evaluated for Career Levels II and III, and over 5,000 have attained these upper levels, which grant financial incentives from $2,000 to $7,000 per year and 10-, 11-, or 12-month contract work. An additional 1,500 educators are being evaluated for Career Level II or III the second semester this school year; hundreds more are waiting in line.

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R. Bruce McPherson, Jon A. Rinnander, and Anthony G. Rud, Jr., "To the Heart of the Mind: Renewal for North Carolina Teachers," Educational Leadership, (November 1987): 43-48. Reprinted with permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and R. Bruce McPherson, Jon A. Rinnander, and Anthony G. Rud, Jr. Copyright (c) 1987 by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. All rights reserved.

To the Heart of the Mind: Renewal for North Carolina Teachers

To recognize outstanding teachers, North Carolina offers them an invigorating interlude of personal reflection, intellectual stimulation, and collegial exchange away from their hectic classrooms.

At the North Carolina Center for the Advancement of Teaching (NCCAT), we turn our attention to the *renewal* of teachers rather than to their reform. We do not seek to change people or their work environments, but rather to encourage them to rediscover and nourish their personal and professional strengths—the passion and the intellect that are their strongest allies in the daily business of teaching. Naturally, we hope reform emanates from renewal, but that is the choice and business of others.

The Center

As a unit of the University of North Carolina, NCCAT is part of a major effort in the state to improve the quality of teacher recruitment, education, and professional development. From its location in the Great Smoky Mountains on the campus of Western Carolina University, the center serves outstanding teachers from every section of the Tarheel State, offering them a renewal experience aimed at the heart of the mind rather than at pedagogical proficiency.

Photographs courtesy of North Carolina Center for the Advancement of Teaching

Small groups discuss topics in philosophy, psychology, or literature and allow plenty of time for each person's voice to be heard and valued. Here, discussion is led by Center Fellow Jon Rinnander, at left.

> **"For many participants this is one of the rare times in their teaching careers that they are entrusted with blocks of unstructured professional time to be savored and used solely for their own benefit."**

Full-time programming began in the fall of 1986 (after two summers of carefully piloted and assessed programs), and 40 seminars will have been completed by the end of November 1987. NCCAT is funded by the General Assembly of North Carolina, which supports center operations, all teacher expenses (including travel and substitute teacher costs), and the construction of a $7.3 million new building complex adjacent to the Western Carolina University campus.

To be considered for the program, applicants must be teaching full time in the state and be acknowledged as outstanding members of their profession. Those who are accepted come to Cullowhee in heterogenous groups of 18 to 20, representing all areas of the state and teaching assignments ranging from kindergarten to advanced placement history. They plunge into a program designed to provide the three elements of the NCCAT experience: personal refreshment, group cohesion, and intellectual stimulation.

Before they arrive, teachers have completed readings in preparation for the seminar they have selected from among a wide range of themes, including "Pride and Teaching," "Scientists of the Mind: Psychology and Education," and "The Global Community." The detailed schedule (see p. 48) reveals the personal, collegial, and cognitive emphases of a typical seminar, in this case "The Meaning of Literacy." In three or four days the teachers typically become a cohesive, compassionate, and enthusiastic group, where parting is not so much sweet sorrow as a promise to make contact again soon.

The intellectual life is, as Aristotle reminds us, nourished by unhurried contemplation and discussion of ideas. Andy Simpson, fifth-grade teacher at Mountain Park Elementary School in Ararat, ponders a point.

The Experience

In reflecting on their time at NCCAT, participants cite the growth they have achieved, the interchange with colleagues across the state, the opportunity to be thoughtful, and, in what is only a seeming contradiction, the chance to be relaxed and at the same time intellectually stimulated. Of course, there are as many variations on the experience as there are participants.

The intellectual life is, as Aristotle reminds us, nourished by unhurried contemplation and discussion of ideas. Lodged in comfortable quarters, given well-prepared meals, and welcomed with a newspaper and fruit basket in each room, our participants are primed to engage in the lively exchange of ideas around a seminar table. Conversations about plate tectonics, Mozart, and cognitive science, as well as the evening concert, are the beginnings of long discussions. When "shop talk" naturally emerges, it too becomes elevated within the nexus of the seminar.

Though discussions of philosophy, psychology, or literature may stress a personal commitment to knowledge and learning, the individual nature of the NCCAT experience comes more strongly from other sources. The small group size invites maximum interaction in the sessions, at meals, and during other activities. There is plenty of time for each person's voice to be heard, and valued.

The organization of the seminar schedule reflects the staff's attentiveness to the needs of the participants. Once the workshop begins, format and content are open for discussion. The staff have instituted a "Response to the Day" period for discussion about revising the schedule in light of the day's events. For example, at a recent seminar on "The Power of Metaphor," the leader deleted one of her presentations to let a participant share his poetry with the group. And "Humans in the Cosmos" was recently interrupted by requests from participants for more information on physics. This dia-

Renewed Awareness, Rekindled Pride

Mary Ella Cameron, an eighth-grade teacher from Smithfield in the Piedmont region of North Carolina, described her experience in attending the North Carolina Center for the Advancement of Teaching seminar on "The Power of Metaphor: Uses of the Imagination."

North Carolina has taken a great step toward the nourishment of its teachers. The Center for the Advancement of Teaching is much like a garden that the state has just begun to plant. For four days, the center became the "garden" for 19 teachers who traveled from all regions of the state to a special place at the Western Carolina University campus at Cullowhee.

We arrived on the first day filled with excitement and anticipation, but without a clear idea of just what would happen. We knew that we would be participating in a seminar on literacy led by distinguished scholars in that field, and we each brought our own needs, concerns, and concepts on this issue to the seminar.

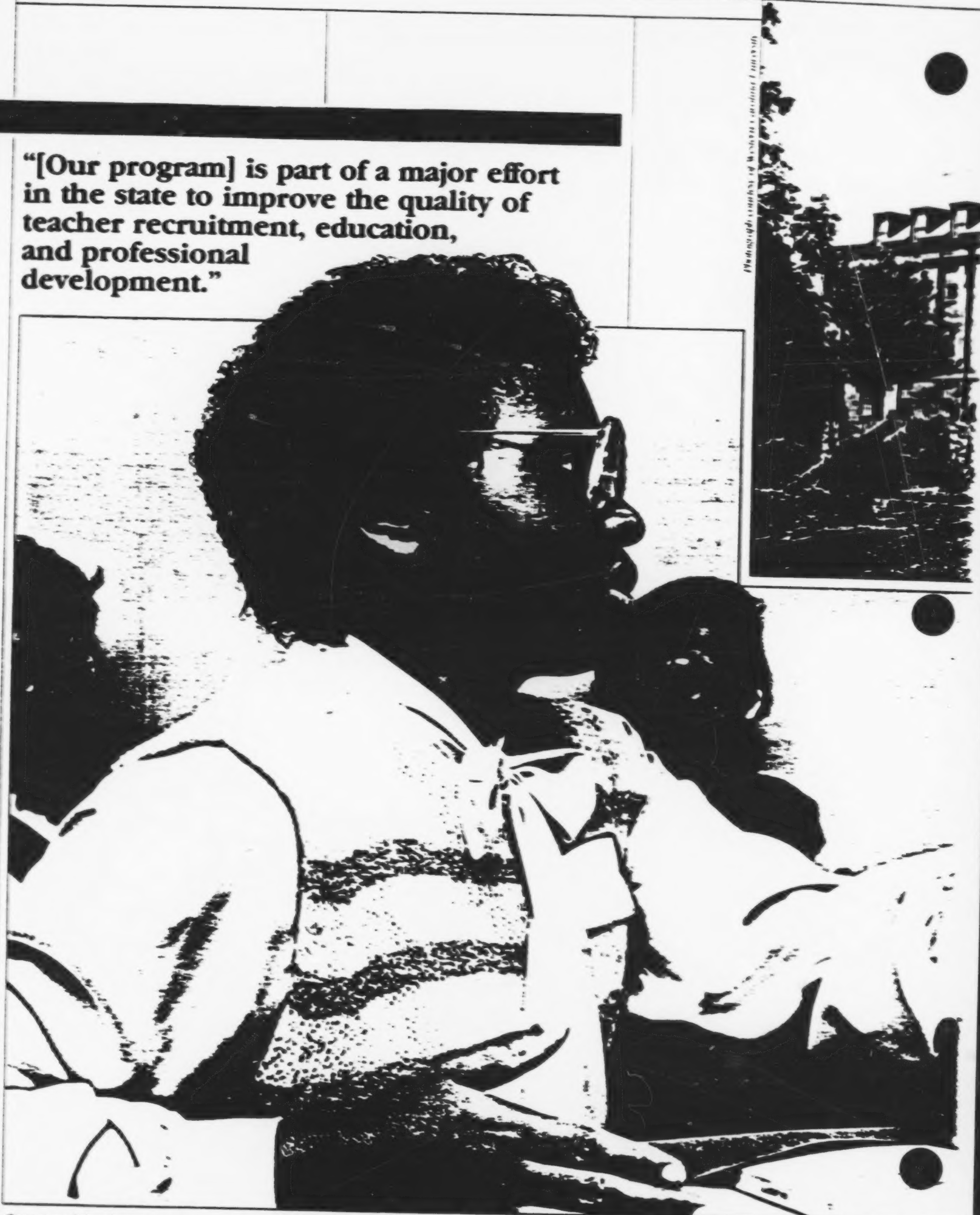
As the days progressed, we found ourselves pampered with physical comforts and indulged with culinary delights. Our minds were nourished with an intellectual stimulation that most of us had not experienced since our college days.

Teachers, as a group, are accustomed to giving to others, and to providing for the care and intellectual development of our students. To find ourselves suddenly the recipients of this same kind of care was emotionally overwhelming. For most of us, it was the first time that anyone had publicly acknowledged any appreciation for the charge that we have been given to educate the youth of this state.

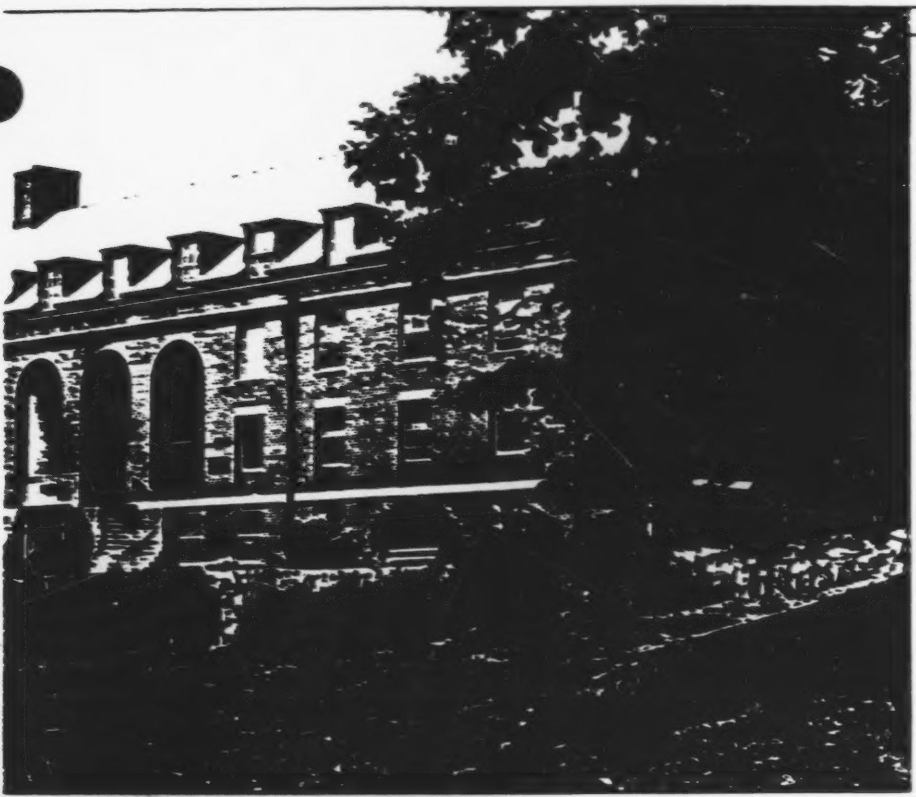
Just as plants flourish under watchful attention of the caring gardener, we began to explore mind-stretching concepts, to rethink old ideas, and to consider new ones. We emerged from this seminar charged with a renewed awareness of our commitment to education and with a rekindled pride in our profession. We have been affirmed by the state of North Carolina, and, in return, we will yield an abundant harvest.

> **"We do not seek to change people or their work environments, but rather to encourage them to rediscover and nourish their personal and professional strengths—the passion and the intellect that are their strongest allies in the daily business of teaching."**

"[Our program] is part of a major effort in the state to improve the quality of teacher recruitment, education, and professional development."


Photograph courtesy of Western Carolina University

Once a workshop begins, discussion takes its own unexpected turns. Pictured here is Lillian B. Stokes, sixth-grade math teacher at Sampson Middle School. Pictured above is Madison Hall, temporary quarters for the North Carolina Center for the Advancement of Teaching, on the Western Carolina University campus.



logue provided the impetus for a teacher-initiated research group that is independently investigating the nature of literacy in the physical sciences and planning a follow-up seminar. Shared authority over the nature and direction of the learning experience has only enhanced each seminar.

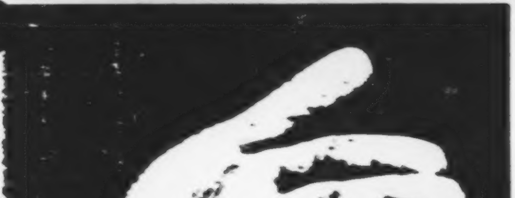
Interspersed throughout each seminar are large chunks of free time for independent study, reflection, and relaxation. For teachers used to a hectic school day, such interludes are cherished. Often, discussion of the seminar topic will spill out to the rocking chairs on the porch of Madison Hall. For many participants this is one of the rare times in their teaching careers that they are entrusted with blocks of unstructured professional time to be savored and used solely for their own benefit.

From Practice to Theory

Most of our participants find themselves at least halfway in life's wood. Our theory in developing programs for them is based on certain key assumptions. We believe, for example, that they already possess what Lee Shulman (1986, 1987) has called the "wisdom of practice." They have advanced skills not only in communicating their thoughts and emotions, but also in adjusting that communication to the level of understanding of their audience. Thus, we create the conditions for the teachers first to realize this truth and then—with joy, energy, and collegial spirit—to act upon it.

The experience of our first year has led us to deemphasize the role of the visiting expert, particularly those who ask in advance for lecterns. We have posited instead, and found by trial and error, a bread-baking kind of presenter who mixes, pounds, and shapes, but also has the sense to stand back and let a discussion take its own unexpected turns.

What evolves is the validation of a seemingly new theory of the education professional: one who shares leadership, openly admits mistakes, and seeks to draw on the energies that free persons can give to uncoerced



"In three or four days the teachers typically become a cohesive, compassionate, and enthusiastic group, where parting is not so much sweet sorrow as a promise to make contact again soon."

"The Meaning of Literacy" Seminar—Schedule of Events

Wednesday	
12:00–3:00 p.m.	Registration and settling in
3:30–4:00 p.m.	Campus tour
4:15–5:30 p.m.	Introduction to the center—Bruce McPherson
6:00–7:15 p.m.	Dinner
7:30–9:00 p.m.	Seminar orientation and overview—Bruce McPherson, Tim Shanahan
9:00 p.m.–	Reception
Thursday	
7:00–7:45 a.m.	Aerobics, walking, jogging, biking
8:00–8:45 a.m.	Breakfast
9:00–10:30 a.m.	"Measurement of Literacy: A New Perspective"—Irwin Kirsch
10:30–11:00 a.m.	Break/Group photo
11:00–11:45 a.m.	Discussion with Irwin Kirsch
12:00–1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:30–3:30 p.m.	"Interview: Literacy Teachers and Their Adult Students"
3:30–5:30 p.m.	Local excursion
5:30 p.m.	Board bus for dinner—Hunter's Restaurant in Franklin
8:00–8:30 p.m.	Response to the Day
8:30 p.m.–	Film: "The Never Ending Story"
Friday	
7:00–7:45 a.m.	Aerobics, walking, jogging, biking
8:00–8:45 a.m.	Breakfast
9:00–10:30 a.m.	"The Consequences of Literacy"—David Olson
10:30–10:45 a.m.	Break
10:45–11:30 a.m.	Discussion with David Olson
11:45–12:30 p.m.	Visit to new NCCAT site
12:30–1:30 p.m.	Lunch on the verandah, Madison Hall
1:30–3:00 p.m.	"The Social Meanings of Literacy"—Boyd Davis
3:00–3:15 p.m.	Break
3:30–4:30 p.m.	"Planning the Literacy Tour"—Boyd Davis and Tim Shanahan
4:30–5:00 p.m.	Response to the Day
6:00–8:00 p.m.	Community Kitchen: Taco Dinner
	Songs by Steve Weams
9:00 p.m.–	"At a Loss for Words" (ABC/Peter Jennings video on illiteracy)
Saturday	
7:00–7:45 a.m.	Aerobics, walking, jogging, biking
8:00–8:45 a.m.	Breakfast
9:00–12:00 p.m.	"Literacy Tour"
12:00–1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:30–3:30 p.m.	"Literacy Tour: Discussion and Sharing"
3:30–3:45 p.m.	Break
3:45–5:45 p.m.	"Schooling and Literacy"—Tim Shanahan
6:00–7:30 p.m.	Dinner, Mary Will Mitchell Room, Brown Cafeteria
8:00 p.m.	Mountain music with the Holberts
9:00 p.m.	"Sharing Books That Are Important in Our Lives"
Sunday	
8:00–10:30 a.m.	Continental breakfast
	Evaluation: Written and oral
	Expense forms
	Good-byes
10:45 a.m.	Bus departs for airport

learning. Ironically, this model is not new. It is found in theorists as diverse as Pestalozzi and Dewey, and it is known to most of the primary teachers who come to NCCAT and are delighted to discover that they speak in their classrooms the very language we are speaking to them.

The components of our theory are necessarily eclectic, but they include: a respect for the unique private history (personal and professional) of each participating teacher; a belief that sharing those histories blends personal commitment into a new "corporate identity"; and the celebration of the elusiveness of discursive intellect. We draw heavily on *Lectures on Aesthetic Education* (Schiller 1801) and *Philosophy in a New Key* (Langer 1957) as a validation of the aesthetic as a unique mode of knowing.

By remarkable consensus, we have placed to one side many of the features that make contemporary American educational theory a footnote to positivism. We draw more on the wellsprings of European and American culture, from institutions as far apart as the classical German gymnasium curriculum and the camp meeting.

We teach knowledge as evolving, learning as a process of constant reeducation and self-renewal, and collegiality as a corrective to the bias and presumption that age, sex, race, and prior education might give to a participant or presenter. We draw our ontology from Whitehead (1929), our epistemology from the pragmatists.

Our constant self-correction is based on the precepts that each person counts, that particularity is necessary to teaching. Our collectivity is organic, a yeasty ferment of sprightly individuals. To the delight of all, our teachers take back to their classrooms more than sheer content; they return with a nonhierarchical model of group learning. ☐

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Low-Cost Arrangements for Peer-Coaching

The concept of peer coaching of teaching is discussed and specific, low-cost strategies are recommended to support peer coaching.

BRUCE JOYCE
BEVERLY SHOWERS

The workplace of teachers was organized long before anyone anticipated that the lifelong study of teaching would be necessary. Now educators must face the problem of arranging for time both for ongoing training and follow-up activities, such as peer coaching. How can time be provided for the coaching of teaching? This article addresses that question and offers a set of suggestions for costless or low-cost ways of providing time for the implementation of peer coaching.

Coaching in Staff Development

In a series of previous papers, we have described research on training designed to give education personnel the opportunity to develop skills in teaching models new to them and to transfer those models (sometimes called teaching strategies) into their active teaching repertoires (Joyce & Showers, 1983; Showers, 1985).

We have argued that the evidence supports two working hypotheses on which training can reasonably be based. The first is that combinations of demonstrations, practice with feedback, and the study of the rationale of the strategy, if well-executed, enable nearly all teachers to develop an initial level of skill sufficient to shape teaching episodes around the teaching models. The second hypothesis is that the transfer of these models into the teaching repertoire occurs during extensive practice in the classroom. For most teachers, about 20 or 30 trials with the new model of teaching are needed until the skill matures to the point where a comfortable, flexible level of use is achieved.

The transfer process is facilitated by the companionship of peers who help the teacher analyze teaching episodes and navigate the refinements that make the strategy a strong, smooth component of the teacher's professional repertoire. We have termed this companionship, with observation and feedback to partners, a coaching relationship. Without coaching or a provision for its equivalent, very few teachers will practice new teaching strategies until they become part of the working repertoire.

Hence, we recommend that staff development programs include demonstrations, opportunities for practice with feedback, and the study of the underlying theory of any new strategies that are the substance of the training. Furthermore, we recommend that, as initial skill is obtained, the participants be organized into teams to implement the coaching component. Within the community of peer coaches, pairs of teachers (coaching partners) visit one another and discuss how to make the strategies work. Larger teams made up of several pairs meet regularly to share successes and discuss problems, watch demonstrations, and receive advanced instruction. Until alternatives are developed, peer coaching or its equivalent appears to be essential if the investment in training is not to be lost, a loss usually attended by a sense of disillusionment and frustration.

> ***We recommend that staff development programs include demonstrations, opportunities for practice with feedback, and the study of the underlying theory of any new strategies that are the substance of the training.***

In most school settings, a number of very practical problems must be solved in order to provide the time for teachers to observe one another, discuss the model of teaching, and adapt it to their purposes and settings. These problems, of course, are products of defects in the workplace. Specifically, time for preparation of teaching or for staff development is not embedded in the work life of teachers. Thus, the implementation of any sort of on-site follow-up to training involves the development of conditions that are some-

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what different from the traditions of the workplace.

Low-Cost Arrangements for Coaching

Our goal is to provide time for peer coaching. Seven strategies that provide for low-cost arrangements for peer coaching are discussed here. Each suggestion has been used in settings in the United States and Canada. Not all of them will be equally attractive to staff developers, administrators, or teachers, and not all of them can be used in any given setting. Taken together, they provide avenues through which time for peer coaching can be arranged in nearly any setting.

Our objective is to come as close as possible to a situation in which each week every teacher can observe the instruction of another professional and discuss the teaching episode and be observed himself or herself along with appropriate discussion of the instruction. For an elementary school of 20 teachers, about 20 hours each week (about one hour per teacher) would be required to sustain a consistent coaching program. Our strategies are described below in the form of actions that administrators might take to provide for low-cost arrangements for coaching.

1. **Free teachers to observe other teachers by taking their classes.** In several schools with which we are familiar, the principals teach approximately one class period each day. The average ratio of building administrators to teachers is about one to 20. Therefore, if each administrator taught one period per day, about one-fourth of the teachers would be released for a period each week. If other supervisory personnel also took a turn in the classroom on a daily or weekly basis, the benefits would increase. Administrators alone, teaching one period a day, can provide about one-fourth of the hours needed.

2. **Schedule larger than classroom-size group instruction.** In most schools, nearly all instruction is provided in classroom-sized groups of students. By bringing students together in larger groups, teachers would have time to visit one another.

In a school with which we are familiar, one of the teachers is expert in teaching children's literature. She gathers half of the upper-grade students together for an hour and a half once a week for the study of a short story or a book, sometimes showing films of the literary work. On other days, she works with the other half of the upper-grade students and groups of primary students.

Literature is not the only subject that can be handled in large groups. Science, social studies, writing, art, music, and physical education are among the subjects that are amenable. We have seen quite a number of schools in which pairs of teachers free one another regularly by teaching both classes in the subjects where they have greater strength, or simply where bringing together two classes with one teacher is as efficient as each teaching the same content to one classroom-size group. The literature teacher described earlier frees every teacher in the school for an hour and a half each week, easily meeting our objective by herself.

A number of very practical problems must be solved in order to provide the time for teachers to observe one another, discuss the model of teaching, and adapt it to their purposes and settings.

3. **Arrange for independent study and research.** Frequently, teachers need to locate and assemble information, study, and then practice instruction. Often these activities can take place in a library or a setting other than the classroom.

We know an outstanding librarian who encourages teachers to use the library as a setting for independent study and will accept 60 students at any given time, in addition to students who are there individually or in small groups. Four volunteer aides provide service to the students, check books in and out, and shelf books. If every teacher took advantage of this opportunity just once each week, our goal would be achieved.

4. **Enlist volunteer aides.** It has been well established that there are many adults in virtually every community who are willing, if not eager, to donate time to the school as an instructional aide. Some schools have recruited cadres of such people to the extent that each teacher has a staff of two aides for a half-day each week. The aides enable a number of arrangements to be made that free teachers for peer coaching. In situations where teachers have aides in the magnitude that we recommend, reaching our goal is not difficult.

By bringing students together in larger groups, teachers would have time to visit one another.

5. **Seek out student teachers.** Student teachers (and aides in some states) can be given limited certificates permitting them legal responsibility for students. We recommend student teachers be placed in teams of two or more. This enables them to coach one another and more quickly become comfortable in the classroom so they can take over instruction. If student teachers are allowed control of the classroom for one or two periods each week, they experience a greater degree of independence than when the teacher is present. This also frees cooperating teachers to join their coaching teams.

6. **Organize team teaching.** We suggested above that teachers might be paired not only for coaching but also for instruction. This would enable teachers to free one another to engage in peer-coaching observation and discussions. If the entire school employs such an arrangement, we believe the entire coaching program can be implemented. We also believe the quality of instruction will be improved.

Team teaching would enable teachers to free one another to engage in peer-coaching observation and discussions.

7. **Use audio- or videotape equipment to record lessons.** The development of the Minicourses at the Far West Laboratory (Borg, Kelly, Langer, & Gall, 1970) demonstrated how effectively teachers can use videotape to study their teaching and practice teaching skills. Although live observation should not be completely replaced by taping, many coaching sessions can be carried out with its use.

We have visited several schools where the principal or someone else tapes teachers while they are teaching. The teacher and the coaching partner can then view and discuss the tape. In several schools, the entire faculty gathers to watch tapes during faculty meetings. This certainly is not the worst use of part of the agenda of faculty meetings. Where video is used regularly, all faculty can study teaching one or more times each week.

Combining Low-Cost Options

We believe almost every school can employ several of these options. If all options were used simultaneously (which we would not recommend), our goal would be reached five or six times over.

If all else fails, one substitute teacher can free approximately six teachers per day for one class period. We recommend, however,that costless options be tried first, especially because all of them provide potential educational benefits for the children. Released time should be reserved, we believe, to free teachers for the training itself.

We are aware that circumstances in particular schools provide obstacles for each of our suggested arrangements. Some principals lack the desire or feel they lack the time to teach. Some teachers do not want aides or student teachers. Some librarians are uncomfortable with more than a few students at a time or having any students without the presence of another teacher. Some districts give aides legal responsibility for students, while others do not.

Most of these problems can be solved. Even if they are not solved, there are so many options that the general problem of "time for coaching" can be managed in nearly every school. Even a modest combination of several of these ideas can do the trick.

Also in situations where coaching is implemented on a school-wide basis, as when a group of volunteers study models of teaching new to them and coach one another, any one of these suggestions can provide time for both coaching and training.

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COOPERATIVE REVOLUTION

Catches Fire

BY ROBERT SLAVIN
The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland

Slowly but unmistakably, a cooperative revolution is taking place in American education. It does not involve technology, money, or massive changes in school organization. It involves people—students, teachers, and administrators—working cooperatively to enhance the learning of all.

People are the one resource that always exists in schools but the power of people to work together to increase the effectiveness of schooling is only now being rediscovered.

The cooperative revolution has many names and many facets. Cooperative learning techniques, in which students work in small teams to help one another master academic material, is rapidly catching on in classrooms. Cooperation among regular, special, and compensatory education teachers to meet the needs of at-risk students is increasing.

And, peer coaching, where teachers help one another to learn and use new instructional methods, is another effective form of cooperation. Still another is increasing involvement of teachers in working with administrators to set a direction for the school.

What ties together these disparate forms of cooperation is that in each case, collaboration among people working toward a common goal is expected to produce more than the individuals working alone: the whole of their combined efforts is greater than the sum of its parts.

We 've been working for the past

15 years at The Johns Hopkins University's Center for Social Organization of Schools on cooperative learning methods in the classroom. In more recent years, we've begun to move beyond cooperation in the classroom to cooperation at all levels of the educational enterprise. This article describes cooperative learning and the extension of this idea to what we call the cooperative school.

Teachers are responsible for helping one another successfully use cooperative learning methods and develop new materials.

Photos by Bill Mills

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning refers to a set of instructional methods in which students work in small, mixed-ability learning groups. The students in each group are responsible not only for learning the material being taught in class, but also for helping their group mates learn.

Often, some sort of group goal exists. In our Student Team Learning methods, students can earn attractive certificates if group averages exceed a pre-established criterion of excellence.

For example, the simplest form of Student Team Learning, called Student Teams-Achievement Division (STAD), consists of a regular cycle of activities. First, the teacher presents a lesson to the class. Then students work in their four-member, mixed-ability teams to master the material the teacher has presented.

At the end of the team study period, students take brief individual quizzes on which they cannot help one another. The results of the quizzes are summed to form team scores, using a system which assigns points based on how much students have improved over their own past records.

A substantial body of research has established that two conditions must be fulfilled if cooperative learning is to significantly enhance student achievement. First, students must be working toward a *group goal* s[illegible] as earning certificates or other recognition. Second, *success at achieving this goal must depend on the individual learning of all group members.*

When cooperative learning methods provide group goals based on the learning of all group members, the effects on student achievement are remarkably consistent.

Of 40 studies (each study being a minimum of four weeks' duration) which compared cooperative methods of this type to traditional control methods, 35 found significantly greater achievement for the cooperatively taught classes and five found no significant differences. In contrast, only four of 20 studies that evaluated forms of cooperative learning without group goals based on group members' learning found positive achievement effects.

The successful studies of cooperative learning have taken place in urban, rural, and suburban schools in the U.S., Canada, Israel, West Germany, and Nigeria, at grade l[illegible]els from two to 12, and in subjects [illegible] diverse as mathematics, language arts, writing, reading, social studies, and science.

Positive effects have been found on such higher-order objectives as creative writing, reading comprehension, and math problem solving, as well as on such basic skills objectives as language mechanics, math computations, and spelling.

In general, achievement effects have been equal for high, average, and low achievers, for boys and girls, and for students of various ethnic backgrounds. Positive effects of cooperative learning have also been found on such outcomes as race relations, acceptance of mainstreamed academically handicapped classmates, and student self-esteem.

Comprehensive Cooperative Learning Methods

Since 1980, our research and development efforts have begun to foc[illegible] on *comprehensive* cooperative lear[illegible]ing methods designed to entirely replace traditional instruction in particular subjects and at particular grade levels.

Teachers demonstrate new cooperative teaching methods and benefit from successful strategies and shared insights.

Two major programs of this type have been developed and successfully researched: Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI) in mathematics for grades three through six and Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) in reading, writing, and language arts for grades three through five.

TAI shares with STAD and other Student Team Learning methods the use of four-member mixed-ability learning teams and certificates for high-performing teams. But where STAD uses a single pace of instruction for the class, TAI combines cooperative learning with individualized instruction. TAI is designed to teach mathematics to students in grades three through six (or older students not ready for a full algebra course).

In TAI, students enter an individualized sequence according to a placement test and then proceed at their own rates. In general, team members work on different units. Teammates check each others' work against answer sheets and help one another with any problems.

Final unit tests are taken without teammate help and are scored by student monitors. Each week, teachers total the number of units completed by all team members and give certificates or other rewards to teams which exceed a criterion score based on the number of final tests passed, with extra points for perfect papers and completed homework.

In TAI, students handle the routine checking and management so the teacher can spend more class time teaching small groups at the same level in the program. This direct instruction, lacking in other forms of individualization, plus the motivation and help provided by students within their cooperative teams probably account for the strong positive effects of TAI on student achievement.

Across six studies, TAI classes have gained an average of twice as many grade equivalents on standardized mathematics computations measures as traditionally taught control classes.

The newest of the Student Team Learning methods is a comprehensive program for teaching reading and writing in the upper elementary grades called Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC).

In CIRC, teachers use basal readers and reading groups, much as in traditional reading programs. However, students are assigned to teams composed of pairs of students from two different reading groups.

While the teacher is working with one reading group, students in the other groups are working in pairs on a series of cognitive activities, including reading to one another, making predictions about how narrative stories will come out, summarizing stories to one another, writing responses to stories, and practicing spelling, decoding, and vocabulary. Students work in teams to master the main idea and other comprehension skills.

Students benefit from cooperative learning and peer coaching.

During language arts periods, a structured program based on a writing process model is used. Students engage in planning and writing drafts, revising and editing one another's work, and preparing for publication of team books. Lessons on such writing skills as description, organization, and use of vivid modifiers and on language mechanics skills are fully integrated into students' creative writing.

Two studies of CIRC found substantial positive effects of this meth-

> **"The CIRC classes gained 30 to 70 percent of a grade equivalent . . . ."**

od on standardized tests of reading comprehension, reading vocabulary, language expression, language mechanics, and spelling in comparison to control groups. The CIRC classes gained 30 to 70 percent of a grade equivalent more than control classes on these measures in both studies. Significantly greater achievement on writing samples among the CIRC students was also found in both studies.

Cooperative School Vision

With cooperative learning programs capable of being used all year in the three R's and other subjects, it is now possible to design a school program based upon a radical principle: Students, teachers, and administrators can work *cooperatively* to make the school a better place for working and learning.

What might a cooperative school look like? One vision that my colleagues and I have begun to work toward in partnership with some innovative practitioners is describ[illegible] below.

- *Cooperative learning in the classroom.* Cooperative schools have cooperative learning methods in use in many or most classrooms and in more than one subject. At the elementary level, the main cooperative learning models are the comprehensive CIRC and TAI programs; at the secondary level, STAD and other class-paced models are more often used.

Students and teachers feel that the idea that students can help one another learn is not just applied on occasion, but is a fundamental principle of classroom organization. Students see one another as resources for learning, and there is a schoolwide norm that each student's learning is everyone's responsibility, that each student's success is everyone's success.

- *Integration of special education and remedial services.* In the cooperative school, mainstreaming is an essential element of school and classro[illegible] organization. Special educati[illegible] teachers may team teach with regular teachers, integrating their students in teams with non-handicapped students, and contributing their expertise in adapting instruction to individual needs to the class as a whole.

Similarly, Chapter 1 or other remedial services may be provided in the regular classroom. If we take seriously the idea that all students are responsible for one another, this goes as much for students with learning problems as for anyone else.

- *Peer coaching.* In the cooperative school, teachers are responsible for helping one another to successfully use cooperative learning methods and to implement other improvements in instructional practice. Peer coaching is perfectly adapted to the philosophy of the cooperative school. In peer coaching, teachers learn new methods together and are given release time to visit one another's classes to give assistance a[illegible] exchange ideas as they begin us[illegible] the new programs.

- *Cooperative planning.* Cooperative activities among teachers are not restricted to peer coaching. In

Teachers share in decision making.

addition, teachers are given time to plan goals and strategies together, to prepare common libraries of instructional materials, and to make decisions about cooperative activities involving more than one class.

● *Building-level steering committee.* In the cooperative school, a steering committee composed of the principal, teacher representatives, representatives of other staff (e.g., special education, Chapter 1 aides), and one or more parent representatives meet to discuss the progress the school is making toward its instructional goals and to recommend changes in school policies and practices designed to achieve these goals.

● *Cooperation with parents and community members.* The cooperative school invites the participation of parents and members of the community in which the school is located. Development of a community sense that children's success in school is everyone's responsibility is an important goal of a cooperative school.

At present, the cooperative revolution is not commonly perceived as one revolution but as several: cooperative learning in the classroom; cooperation among special, compensatory, and regular education; cooperation among teachers in peer coaching; and so on.

If the thousands of elementary and secondary schools that are already implementing one or more levels of cooperation among students and/or staff begin to move toward an integrated vision of a cooperative school, then the cooperative revolution will truly fulfill its promise as a means of accelerating the achievement of all students while making the school a more humane and pleasant place to work and learn.

Improved school climate is an important outcome of collegial coaching.

Resources

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SYSTEMS
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In an age when schools have been told to redesign to meet the needs of technological society, there is one company that believes that technology can also be redesigned to meet the needs of schools. The company is Systems Impact, Inc., and its videodisc-based products are characterized by:

1. A concern for student outcomes.
- ▲ Each product is developed through a cyclic field test and revisions process until student achievement and attitudes consistently reach high levels.
- ▲ Independent evaluations attest to the fact that Systems Impact products work.

2. A concern for the central role of the teacher.
- ▲ The Systems Impact products enhance teacher performance.
- ▲ Teachers consistently report that instruction is more personalized and efficient.
- ▲ The teacher has more support, more instructional options, and more control over instruction.

3. A concern for the realities of cost and productivity in schools.
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- ▲ A hardware component that is [illegible] priced, easily maintained and [illegible] and flexibly used.
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4. A concern for the practices and strengths of public schools.
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- ▲ Ensures the teaching of core concepts to all students.
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ADDITIONAL REFERENCES AND RESOURCES
Developing Quality Teachers: Challenging and Enriching Current Staff

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